UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

PREPOSITIVE ATTRIBUTIVE PHRASES IN MODERN ENGLISH AND RUSSIAN, AND SOME ASPECTS OF THEIR ENGLISH TO RUSSIAN TRANSLATION

BY
YURI NOVIKOV ©

A THESIS
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS
IN
RUSSIAN LINGUISTICS

DEPARTMENT OF MODERN LANGUAGES AND COMPARATIVE STUDIES

EDMONTON, ALBERTA
FALL, 1995

National Library
of Canada

Acquisitions and
Bibliographic Services Branch

395 Wellington Street
Ottawa, Ontario
K1A 0N4

Bibliothèque nationale
du Canada

Direction des acquisitions et
des services bibliographiques

395, rue Wellington
Ottawa (Ontario)
K1A 0N4

Your file Votre référence

Our file Notre référence

THE AUTHOR HAS GRANTED AN IRREVOCABLE NON-EXCLUSIVE LICENCE ALLOWING THE NATIONAL LIBRARY OF CANADA TO REPRODUCE, LOAN, DISTRIBUTE OR SELL COPIES OF HIS/HER THESIS BY ANY MEANS AND IN ANY FORM OR FORMAT, MAKING THIS THESIS AVAILABLE TO INTERESTED PERSONS.

L'AUTEUR A ACCORDE UNE LICENCE IRREVOCABLE ET NON EXCLUSIVE PERMETTANT A LA BIBLIOTHEQUE NATIONALE DU CANADA DE REPRODUIRE, PRETER, DISTRIBUER OU VENDRE DES COPIES DE SA THESE DE QUELQUE MANIERE ET SOUS QUELQUE FORME QUE CE SOIT POUR METTRE DES EXEMPLAIRES DE CETTE THESE A LA DISPOSITION DES PERSONNE INTERESSEES.

THE AUTHOR RETAINS OWNERSHIP OF THE COPYRIGHT IN HIS/HER THESIS. NEITHER THE THESIS NOR SUBSTANTIAL EXTRACTS FROM IT MAY BE PRINTED OR OTHERWISE REPRODUCED WITHOUT HIS/HER PERMISSION.

L'AUTEUR CONSERVE LA PROPRIETE DU DROIT D'AUTEUR QUI PROTEGE SA THESE. NI LA THESE NI DES EXTRAITS SUBSTANTIELS DE CELLE-CI NE DOIVENT ETRE IMPRIMES OU AUTREMENT REPRODUITS SANS SON AUTORISATION.

ISBN 0-612-06368-2

Canada

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

Library Release Form

Name of Author: Yuri Novikov

Title of Thesis: Prepositive Attributive Phrases in Modern English and Russian, and Some Aspects of their English to Russian Translation

Degree: Master of Arts

Year this Degree Granted: 1995

Permission is hereby granted to the University of Alberta Library to reproduce single copies of this thesis and to lend or sell such copies for private, scholarly, or scientific research purposes only.

The author reserves all other publication and other rights in association with the copyright in the thesis, and except as hereinbefore provided, neither the thesis nor any substantial portion thereof may be printed or otherwise reproduced in any material form whatever without the author's prior written permission.

12103-58 St.,
Edmonton AB
T5W 3X5

August 31 1995

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommended to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research for acceptance, a thesis entitled 'Prepositive Attributive Phrases in Modern English and Russian, and Some Aspects of their English to Russian Translation' by Yuri Novikov in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Russian Linguistics.

Dr. T. Priestly

Dr. K. Holden

Dr. J.T. Hogan

August 30 1995

Abstract

Prepositive attributive phrases in English and Russian languages are analysed. Three main types of two and multimember phrases are defined in both languages: structurally open; partially open, or chain-type; and structurally closed, or integral. English integral phrases are subdivided into phrases structurally corresponding to a sentence, a word combination, and a prepositional/postpositional group. Fixed and non-fixed integral phrases are reviewed and correlated to compound adjectives, phraseological units and free syntactic word combinatons. The stylistic use of English integral attributes, as well as their combinability with the defined nouns, are discussed. Russian integral phrases are subdivided into phrases with adjectives or participles with subordinate adverbs, nouns, infinitive, phrases with relative pronouns как and словно, and phrases in which adjectives or participles are defined by a subordinate sentence. A comparative analysis of English and Russian prepositive phrases is given. Some aspects of English to Russian translation of such phrases are reviewed.

Acknowledgement

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to Dr. T. Priestly without whom this project would have never been accomplished. My thanks are also extended to the members of the examination committee, Drs. K. Holden and J.T. Hogan for their extremely valuable remarks and corrections. I would also like to mention my family and friends who provided support and understanding in the course of work on this project.

Table of Contents

Introduction....1

Chapter I. Prepositive Attributive Phrases in Modern English: Literature Survey and Terminological Definitions....4

1.1 Various Approaches Towards Classification of Prepositive Attributive Phrases....11

1.2 Structurally Open Attributes....12

1.3 Partially Open, or 'Chain' Attributes....12

1.4 Structurally Closed, or 'Integral' Attributes....13

Chapter II. Classification of English Integral Prepositive Attributive Phrases....20

2.1 Prepositive Attributes Structurally Corresponding to a Sentence....22

2.2 Prepositive Attributes Structurally Corresponding to a Word Combination....24

2.21 Attributive Groups, the Components of which are Connected by a Preposition, Conjunction or Infinitive Particle....24

2.211 Attributes the Components of which are Connected by a Conjunction....24

2.212 Attributes the Components of which are Connected by a Preposition....25

2.213 Attributes with the Infinitive Particle....26

2.22 Attributive Groups, the Components of which are not Connected by Prepositions, Conjunctions, or the Infinitive Partcle.....26

2.3 Prepositive Attributes Structurally Corresponding to a Prepositional/Postpositional Group of Words.....28

2.4 Fixed Phrases.....29

2.5 Non-fixed Phrases.....33

2.6 Stylistic Usage.....34

Chapter III. Prepositive Attributive Phrases in Modern Russian: A Survey of the Literature.....38

Chapter IV. Classificaton of Russian Prepositive Attributive Phrases.....61

4.1 Structurally Open Attributive Phrases.....61

4.2 Partially Open, or 'Chain' Attributive Phrases.....61

4.3 Structurally Closed, or 'Integral' AttributivePhrases.....62

4.31 Adjectives and Participles with SubordinateAdverbs.....62

4.32 Adjectives or Participles with SubordinateNouns.....64

4.321 Non-prepositional Phrases.....64

4.322 Prepositional Phrases.....65

4.33 Adjectives or Participles with Subordinate Infinitive.....70

4.34 Adjectives and Participles with the Relative Pronouns Как and Словно 70

4.35 Adjectives and Participles Defined by a Subordinate Sentence.....70

Chapter V. Comparative Analysis of English and Russian Prepositive Attributive Phrases.....72

Chapter VI. Some Aspects of English to Russian Translation of Prepositive Attributive Phrases.....76

Bibliography.....86

List of Tables

Table I. Classification Of English Structurally Closed Prepositive Attributive Phrases.....21

Introduction

The questions of structure, semantics, and use of word combinations of different types are topics that still require considerable research both in English and Russian. Many cases involving the differentiation of free syntactic combinations from phraseological units and compound words, fixed and non-fixed combinations, etc. have not been yet solved. Prepositive attributive phrases, i.e., combinations of two or more words which have an attributive function, and represent a grammatically and semantically complete entity, are distinguished by structural variety in both languages, and are extensively used both in English and Russian. In the present work we have attempted to categorize two and multicomponent prepositive attributive phrases in both languages basing ourselves upon the criteria of structural peculiarities of these phrases and their divisibility, i.e. the ability of single components of an attribute to refer to the defined noun independently from the other co-members of the same phrase. Hence, three main subtypes of prepositive attributive phrases are singled out: structurally open ('a big black book' -- большая черная книга); partially open, or chain-type ('Moscow State University' -- Московский государственный университет); and structurally closed, or integral ('ready-to-fall leaf' -- готовый упасть лист). Integral phrases in English, which can structurally correspond to a sentence (e.g., 'make-it-yourself instruction'), to a word combination (e.g., 'war-and-peace conference), or to a prepositional/postpositional group (e.g., 'off-the-record briefing'), as well as Russian integral attributive phrases which can be represented by adjectives or participles with subordinate adverbs (e.g., хорошо продуманный план - 'well-considered plan'), nouns (e.g., мокрые от слез глаза - 'eyes wet with tears'), or an infinitive (e.g., способный сосредоточиться человек - 'man capable of concentrating'), combinations with the relative pronouns как and словно (e.g., горячий как огонь лоб - 'forehead hot as fire'), and phrases with adjectives or participles defined by a subordinate sentence (e.g., влажная после того, как прошел дождь, земля - 'ground wet after the rain'), are of special interest. Research of this type has not been conducted before, and there are very few literature sources which could be used directly on the subject. Western linguists, such as R. Quirk, O. Jespersen, G. Curme, G. Corbett, L. Babby, and Soviet and Russian linguists, such as O. Axmanova, B. Il'iš, A. Smirnickij, F. Fortunatov, N. Prokopovič made valuable comments

about the phrases of this type functioning as prepositive attributes, but did not analyse them specifically.

The present research is aimed at an analysis of the attributes of this type in English and Russian, and their comparison. The work consists of an Introduction and six Chapters.

In Chapter I, a general survey of literature on English prepositive attributive phrases, some terminological definitions, and various approaches towards the classification of such phrases, are given.

Chapter II reviews the classification of integral, or structurally closed, attributive prepositive phrases in English, structurally corresponding to a sentence, a word combination, and a prepositional/postpositional group. Also, the questions of fixed and non-fixed integral attributes, the differentiation of attributive phrases from compound adjectives, the correlation of attributive phrases with phraseological units and free syntactic word combinations, the combinability of attributive phrases with the nouns defined, as well as the stylistic use of attributive phrases (use in oral and written speech, use in various functional styles, stylistic function in regards to the purpose of the utterance, and stylistic and emotional colouring), are discussed in this section.

Chapter III is devoted to a survey of the literature on the nature of Russian adjectives, and Russian prepositive attributive phrases.

Chapter IV contains a classification of Russian prepositive attributive phrases divided into structurally open, partially open, and structurally closed, or integral, types. Structurally closed attributes are then subdivided into phrases with subordinate adverbs, nouns, infinitive, phrases with relative pronouns, and phrases with a subordinate sentence.

Chapter V gives a brief comparative analysis of English and Russian prepositive attributive phrases, and discusses certain limitations of such a correlation due to the general linguistic tendencies of the two languages.

Chapter VI reviews some aspects of the translation of English prepositive attributive phrases into Russian, and includes various concrete ways of translating the phrases of this particular type.

Various sources, apart from those in the linguistic literature, were used for collection of the illustrative material which include examples taken from newspapers, magazines, technical and scientific texts, as well as from classical literature of such authors as N. Mitford, J.K. Jerome, A. Sillitoe, A. Wesker, R. Aldington, S. Bulbakov, A. Trifonov, D. Mamin-Sibiriak, L.Tolstoy, K. Fedin, A. Pushkin, N. Gogol, M. Gorky, M. Sholokhov, A. Tolstoy, K. Paustovsky, I. Goncharov, and A. Fadeev. The examples of prepositive attributive phrases are given with the nouns they define, and sometimes portions of text, to reveal semantic relationships of the constituent words. Throughout the text, translation into Russian or English is provided to illustrate the points later outlined in Chapter VI.

Chapter I

Prepositive Attributive Phrases in Modern English: Literature Survey and Terminological Definitions

The occurrence of attributes with a particular structural character is one of the distinguishing features of the Modern English language. As Levickaja and Fiterman (1975:88) put it, these are "so-called attributive groups; phrase attributes which are in fact a special structural type of epithet; and finally, epithets with the preposition "of" connecting the attribute to the head word, as in "a bolt of thunder".

Attributive phrases are one of the most extensively used type of free or fixed word combinations in Modern English. Numerous prepositive attributive phrases with a range of specific and typical peculiarities, are of special interest because they represent a major difficulty for translation. This difficulty is determined by the diversity of structural and semantic connections between the members of the phrases, and also, in some cases, by the polysemy of the phrase itself.

Constructions of such a type, which structurally correspond to a sentence or a word combination, are extremely varied semantically and structurally. Recently, they became widespread in journalism, and scientific and technical literature, which could be explained by the desire for brevity and economy obtained by the use of such phrases.

The fact that these attributes are widespread can be also explained by one more feature, besides terseness, which they possess. They establish closer links with the defined noun than attributes formed in the following group: "noun+preposition*of* " (cf. 'A crew of five men' with 'a five-men crew').

Prepositive attributive phrases are also extensively used in belles-lettres. In this case, the primary emphasis is placed not so much on terseness and compression, but on emotional colouring and expressiveness. In prose,

these word combinations acquire a vivid stylistic colouring, and result in an epithet with original form and structure:

'Unfortunately, it never seemed to be chocolate cake and silver teapot day...' (N. Mitford)

In Modern English, the number of words performing a certain function, including attribution, is limited. However, due to the prepositive attribution which possesses exceptional diversity, the marking function, i.e. the ability to express attributive relations, of the language increases significantly. This may be one of the explanations for the wide use of prepositive attributive groups in journalism and belles-lettres.

As stated above, the variety of syntactic connections even in the most simple phrases of the following type: "Noun+Noun+Noun", permits a brevity in English which is hardly posssible in any other European language. Randolph Quirk (1962:162) gives an interesting example of a prepositive attributive phrase in an advertisement of a steel company: "... the redesign and enlargement of the Company's eight fixed open hearth steel melting furnaces...". Adversaries to the use of such phrases might have preferred the variant:
"...eight furnaces of a fixed type with open hearth for the melting of steel...". However, Quirk (1962:163) notes that although this phenomena could be treated as 'jargon', yet "there is method in it. It would be best to reserve this term for recurrent slipshod pomposities as distinct from technical expressions ...which are admirably clear to those who understand these things, and which are therefore completely legitimate. If we do not understand the *processes* of a given context of activity and situation, we cannot expect to understand the labels for those processes, however they are 'addressed', so to speak. Replacing the terms *sinter plant* or *sinking fund* [which have prepositive attributes] by something comprehensible to all would involve replacing them with manuals of instruction in metallurgy and finance respectively!"

We may even say that the two variants given above differ from the point of view of their semantics. While the prepositive attributive phrase defines a certain category of a furnace used in this industry, the second variant with the group in postposition gives a general description of the furnace which

is characterised by certain qualities. This also explains the fact that prepositive attributes are widely used in headlines and advertisements printed in large type, and that is why they have to be short and bear maximal semantic load.

At this point we come to the question of definition of an attributive word combination or phrase, which should be probably formulated this way. The attributive phrase is an attribute consisting of several elements; normally, of a noun in the general case (i.e., non-oblique) and an adjective (or another noun); sometimes of a whole phraseological group, or even of a simple or a complex sentence, with words united in such a way as to form a grammatically and semantically complete entity.

In newspaper style we observe a tendency to replace an attribute expressed by a noun in possessive case, or by a noun with the preposition "of", with a noun in the general case (i.e., non-oblique), attributively. For example, 'Alberta Government Aid', instead of 'Government's Aid' or 'Aid of the Government'.

The syntactic formation of attributes is a characteristic feature of Modern English, as is word formation by conversion (i.e. transfer of words from one part of speech into another). Both may have a non-permanent character, and represent a use and formation for the given situation. Numerous prepositive attributive phrases found in advertisements, journalism, specialized literature, etc., have a number of specific features. They can give emotional colouring to a certain word, or refer more precisely to the area of application for the objects expressed by certain words. The semantic connection of these phrases with the noun they define is denoted not as distinctly as it is in groups with post-position (cf. "sky-blue eyes" and "eyes blue as the sky").

Another possible reason for the wide use of prepositive attributive phrases could be the fact that, while acting as one word, and despite their structural diversity, they at the same time carry in themselves the meaning of a certain single quality. "Easy-to-obtain effect" characterizes the head word "effect" in a way which is impossible to convey in the variants "easy effect to obtain" or "effect which is easy to obtain".

The use of attributive function of multi-member prepositive phrases represents a deviation from the commonly used methods for creation of expressiveness, and fills the message with a particular force and remarkable broadness of semantic links between the members of a phrase.

In English a prepositive attribute may describe the following head word not only directly, but also indirectly, denoting not its own feature, but a feature of some other object or event connected to it. Such incomplete attributive phrases, i.e. phrases with ellipsis of one of the components, are widespread. For example, semantic incompleteness is often a distinguishing feature of the phrases having the following structure: "Noun+Noun", "Adjective+Noun", "Noun+Noun+Noun". While translating, the explicit expression of one of the components implicit in the source language is needed. These phrases have head words dominating the others that are subordinate to them grammatically and semantically, and define, or amend, or limit the semantic meaning of the defined noun. Members of such phrases have complex semantic links which unite them. This is especially apparent in the cases when an adjective defines the head word via another semantic component. Axmanova (1966:358) calls this phenomena "condensed adjectives". In cases like this, for example, we do not translate the phrase "Un-american Committee" as "антиамериканская комиссия", but "комиссия по расследованию антиамериканской деятельности" (cf. in Russian иностранное министерство and министерство иностранных дел).

One of the specific features of prepositive attributive phrases having the following structures: "Adjective+Noun+Noun" or "Noun+Noun+Noun" is that, besides the relationship of attributes with the noun being defined, all components of the phrase are connected by their own semantic links which at times can be quite complicated.

E.g. 'unfair labour practices strike' -- забастовка против несправедливого обращения с рабочими

This peculiarity of attributive phrases is manifested even more in so-called "stone wall" (Noun+Noun) word combinations, which may be observed from the following examples:

'labour spy testimony' -- показания шпиона, следящего
за рабочими
but not показания рабочего шпиона

'war prosperity recollections' -- воспоминания о процветании,
существовавшем в годы войны, или порожденном войной

There is also one more feature which is often found in multi-member prepositive attributive phrases. Many of them possess internal predication, and this is frequently used in belles-lettres to express various emotional nuances in order to reflect, in particular, the ironic or satiric attitude of the author towards the events being described. For example:

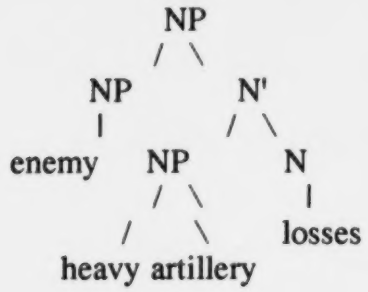
'... a sort of what-a-wicked-world-this-is-and-how-I-wish-I-could-do-something-to-make-it-better-or-nobler expression' (J.K. Jerome) -- ... с таким выражением лица, словно хочет сказать: "О как плох этот мир и как бы я хотел сделать его лучше и благороднее".

Despite the fact that attributive prepositive phrases are widely used in Modern English, relatively little research has been done to evaluate this phenomena. Most of the authors: Pollard and Sag (1987 and 1994); Horrocks (1987); Spears (1990), tend to concentrate on simple attributes, usually expressed by non-compound adjectives or nouns, and view them as part of noun phrases.

It is worthwhile reviewing the approach given by Radford (1994), which is essentially the only book found, in the Western sources, which deals with prepositive attributive constructions in English. Again, Radford defines prepositive attributive groups and the noun they define as a noun phrase, whereas attributive groups can constitute phrases of different types: Noun Phrases, Adjective-modified Noun Phrases, Determinate Noun Phrases and Quantified Noun Phrases.

1) According to Radford, Noun Phrases will have the following general form: [specifier+complement+head]. It seems plausible to suppose that the italicized nominal serves the thematic role of AGENT, whereas the bold-printed nominal serves that of PATIENT:

E.g. '*enemy* **heavy artillery** losses', or
'losses of heavy artillery by the enemy'



2) In the section devoted to adjectives Radford reviews in detail pre-nominal and post-nominal adjectives, and comes to the conclusion that it is plausible to differentiate between two different types of prenominal adjectives: (1) those occupying an argument position internal to NP; and (2) those occupying a modifier position external to NP.

In phrases like '*Spanish* **troop** movements', '*ministerial* **defence** cuts', etc. the italicized adjectives appear to function as external argument and hence precede the internal (bold-printed) argument. In this case the adjectives function as adjectival modifiers and are positioned externally to the NP. Word order factors confirm this assumption: '*troop Spanish movements'. Therefore, NP-external adjectival modifiers (that is, attributive adjectives) must precede NP-internal adjectival arguments. Treating all non-argument adjectival expressions as Adjectival Phrases which serve as adjuncts to NPs in this way offers the obvious advantage of providing a unitary account of the syntax of pre-nominal and post-nominal adjectives. Later on Radford stipulates that post-nominal adjectives are predicative adjuncts to NPs. Adjectival Phrases can precede or follow the expressions they modify:

E.g. a. 'Are there [actors available suitable for the part]?'
b. 'Are there [suitable available actors]?'

Ranford states that premodifying (i.e. prepositive attributive) phrases can contain post head constituents. He examines the phrases of the following type: [*after* **dinner**] speeches, [*under* **the counter**] transactions, [*up* **to the minute**] news reports, the [*end* **of term**] celebrations, a [*far* **from perfect**] performance, your [*next* **to last**] chance, the [*ban* **the bomb**] campaign, a [*better* **than average**] student. In each of these structures, the italicized constituent would appear to be the head of the bracketed premodifying phrase, and yet is not final within its containing phrase.

3) Determiners can also be a part of premodifying phrases, and occupy initial position:

E.g. '*the goverment* 's recent tax reforms'

It is interesting to compare the above given example with with its indeterminative counterpart:

'recent *government* tax reform'

In the second example, the italicized nominal *government* is an NP which functions as specifier of a containing NP, and follows the adjectival modifier 'recent'. By contrast, in the first example, the italicized nominal *the government* is a Determinate Phrase (DP) which functions as the specifier of a containing DP, and precedes the adjectival modifier 'recent'. If we posit that nouns are not case assigners (Radford talks about cases in the semantic sense) and that genitive*'s* is a functional category which assigns case to its specifier, and if we further posit that DPs are case-dependent but NPs are case resistant, then it follows that the NP 'government' (being case-resistant) can occur in a caseless position as the specifier of NP but not in a case-marked position as the specifier of DP, and conversely the DP 'the government' (being case-dependent) can occur as the specifier of DP, but not as the specifier of NP. The use of demonstrative pronouns in English as Determiners supports this point of view: 'Mary's house is bigger than John's'. Both 'the' and possessive nominals can be preceded by a range of pre-determiner Quantifiers: 'all/both the problems'.

4) Given the general assumption that pre-nominal modifiers are the heads of their containing nominals, it would be natural to suppose that quantified nominals have the status of Quantifier Phrases headed by their Quantifiers: 'all these trees'. Pre-determiner Quantifiers differ from pre-nominal Quantifiers in respect of their complement-selection (that is, subcategorization) properties, for example in respect of whether they have an NP or DP complement (cf. 'all the trees' and 'several trees').

As a summary Radford states that each of the four types of constituent which co-head nominals (N, D, Q and A) has a pronounced counterpart, so that we find pronominal N constituents like 'one', pronominal Quantifiers like 'each', pronominal Determiners like 'we', and pronominal adjectives like 'English'. It may well be that restricted pronominal Q, D and A constituents are lexical compounds of an (overt or covert) pronominal N ultimate head and a Q, D or A premodifier, and thus have the status of QN, DN and AN constituents.

Although Radford's approach is interesting, however controversial, the area of his research somehow lies in a different field as compared to the purpose of the present work. On the other hand, Radford's classification of prepositive attributive phrases and their deep structure analysis could have been used as the basis for the classification in the present research, had it been our purpose, or it might be helpful for the future extended research on this topic.

1.1 Various Approaches Towards Classification of Prepositive Attributive Phrases

There are different approaches towards the classification of prepositive attributive groups. In the present work, the structural peculiarities and divisibility of word combinations will be taken as a criteria for defining the types of two and multicomponent attributes. Under the term "structural divisibility" we understand the ability of single components of an attribute to become isolated structurally and semantically from the point of view of the combination of words, i.e. the ability to refer to the noun defined by the attribute phrase, independently from the other co-members of the same attribute. We can define the following three types of prepositive attributes.

1.2 Structurally Open Attributes

The attributes of this kind, which express separate and independent features, can refer to the defined noun independently.

E.g. 'a heavy oaken table' - тяжелый дубовый стол

Such attributes consist of several structurally and semantically independent words denoting separate features. The components are able to refer to the defined noun independently ('a heavy table', 'an oaken table'). They are never connected to each other with a hyphen, and have their own rhythmical stresses. It is worthwhile noting that in terms of information structure attributive phrases of this type would be normally associated with new information.

1.3 Partially Open, or "Chain" Attributes

The components of the attributes of this kind define each other, and this process has a "chain type" character. The character of the combination of the components influences their structural divisibility and reference to the noun being defined by the attribute. The attributes of this type allow divisions by deletion of the first component. The attributive group in this case is not destroyed completely since part of its connotational meaning is preserved.

E.g. 'Byelorussian State Polytechnical Institute' -- Белорусский государственный политехнический институт

Byelorussian State Polytechnical Institute
State Polytechnical Institute
Polytechnical Institute

Two-member attributes like "trade union movement", or "bathing beauty competition" can be also put into this class.

A detailed analysis of phrases of this type was given by Lees (1963), that is why we will concentrate mainly on the next type, i.e. structurally closed prepositive attributes.

1.4 Structurally Closed, or "Integral" Attributes

Phrases of this type play the role of an attribute as a whole unit, and may not be separated by other components. The parts of such constructions constitute one member of a sentence; these parts are unchangeable and not liable to movement within the sentence. Their structural integrity shifts them closer to compound words, when description of a feature (i.e. quality) is rather transformed into a phrase that describes a feature. Orthographically, integral attributes are normally written hyphenated or in quotation marks, and rarely without punctuation marking. Multimember phrases, i.e. those consisting of more than two elements, lose the number of stressed syllables, and are pronounced with enhanced speed.

E.g. 'a stop-the-attack-on-Vietnam tour' -- поездка с целью добиться прекращения войны во Вьетнаме

Besides the main three types of two and multimember prepositive attributes there are mixed types:

E.g. 'a hole-in-the-wall drive-in restaurant' -- ресторан для проезжающих автомобилистов, напоминающий просто дыру в стене

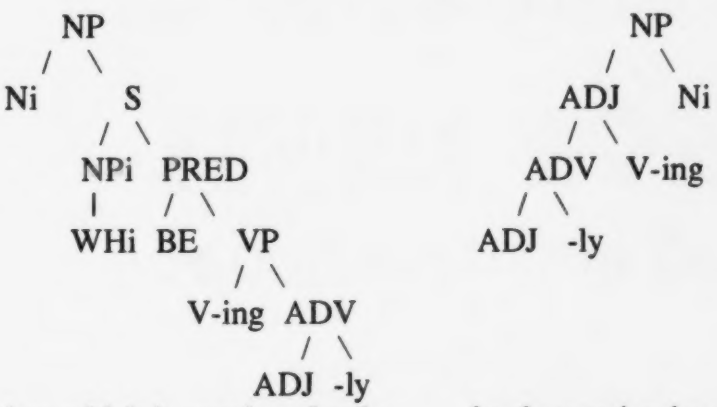
It is interesting to note that unlike structurally open attributes phrases of this type normally contain presupposed, shared, or implicit knowledge.

The existence of structurally closed integral attributes in Modern English is not an isolated phenomena, but is fully connnected to the analytical trends of the language which allows the adjoining of not just single words (e.g., nouns, adverbs), but word combinations such as non-adjectival attributes to a head noun by way of prepositive arrangement.

There are various approaches towards the treatment of the given type of attributes. They have been analysed as: 1) compound adjectives, 2) word combinations, or 3) constituent parts of compound or complex words where a compound word is defined as a combination "attribute+ head word".

Speaking about the first approach, authors like Brown (1884), Curme (1935), Ball (1963), and many others review only some instances of the phenomena and interpret them as compound adjectives. As an example, Meys (1975) speculates about the sum-total of the combined meaning of the constituent parts and the meaning of a compound, comparing words such as 'blackboard' with the corresponding free syntactic combinations 'black board', or compounds like 'water-melon' with the corresponding phrases 'melon with water'. His conclusion is that there is no clear cut division between compound and syntactic groups. The process of the noun-adjuncts (such as 'labour conditions') seems to be the same as that underlying the formation of compounds. Basing himself upon Chomsky's transformational grammar, Meys notes that compound adjectives can be paraphrased by direct phrases.

E.g. Slowly-moving bus = Bus which is moving slowly



bus which is moving slowly slowly-moving bus

Meys suggests that the criteria of fore-stress (i.e. presumably the fact that the first word in the phrase has the primary stress), single-word characteristics ('isolability' and 'inseparability'), morpheme-inversion,

semantic particularization and writing conventions should be jointly employed to qualify a combination as a compound. Compounds can be regarded as (usually pre-modifying) replacements of lengthier (post-modifying) phrases. The post-modifying phrases usually take the form of the relative clauses.

In his corpus of material, the author establishes the following classification of prepositive attributes (unfortunately, he concentrates only on "true compound adjectives"):

A. ___+ing
- N peace-loving
- Pro self-winding
- Adj pleasant-tasting
- Adv slowly-moving
- Prep off-putting

B. ___+en
- N snob-despised
- Pro self-generated
- Adj ready-made
- Adv easily-cleaned
- Prep downcast

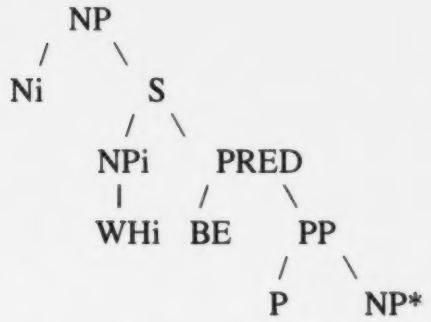
C. ___+ADJ
- V seal-easy
- N skin-tight
- Pro self-conscious
- Adj red-brown
- Adv fully-adjustable

D. ___+V
- Pro self-build
- Adv soft-sell
- Prep through-flow

Meys makes a distinction between "compound adjectives proper" and attributively used compound nouns. According to him the difference is in the underlying structure. In general, attributively-used compound nouns can be characterized as those compounds occuring in a DET___N frame

which derives from the following structure in which all the constituents of the compound derive from NP*:

1) Early-warning station
2) The station is for early warning



"True" compound adjectives derive from a structure other than given above.

It must be mentioned that from the semantic point of view it is difficult to say that some metaphorical compounds can be regularly derived from the relativized sentences (Meys example: 'stone-drinking man', and *'A man who drinks stones'). Whatever their diachronic relationship, from a synchronic point of view the compounds are no longer eqivalent to relativized sentences. However, the relationship with the acquired meaning still could be traced, and this relation can be characterized as an 'as if' relation (cf. 'A hair-raising story', and '(A story which is) so horrifying that it seems as if it raises one's hair'). But, although there is a kind of regularity it cannot be easily translated in terms of generally productive patterns or rules which would account not only for the existing combinations but also for novel ones.

The above described approach could be considered similar to that of Jespersen (1969), although the author distinguishes junction processes and processes of compounding. Whithin the former he singles out: (1) Ordinary Adjuncts ('good enough arguments', 'a not particularly well constructed plot', 'The Crown Inn', 'a good-for-nothing fellow'); (2) Secondary or Tertiary ('burning hot soup', 'wide open windows', 'in

perfect good temper'); (3) Genitival Adjuncts ('his poor mother's heart', 'for both our sakes'); (4) Prepositional Phrases or Adverbs ('The king of England's castles', 'the above remark'); (5) Equipollent, when two connected items do not have, as in the cases so far treated, different rank; this is especially frequent when a proper name consists of two parts, or when a descriptive (common) name is placed before a proper name ('The river Thames'); with the opposite word order we have rather compounds, and the rank is not always easy to determine ('the Bronte sisters'); (6) Irregular Junction, when adjuncts may be virtually a subjunct (tertiary) to some adjectival or verbal idea contained in the primary ('a few absolute necessaries'); (7) Implied Predicatives, when there is an implied predicate-relation in the primary ('a future {nominated, designed} bishop'); (8) Unclassifiable ('in all your born days'); (9) Secondaries that have become Primaries ('The out-of-works receive the dole').

In the category of Compounds Jespersen distinguishes: (1) The Ordinary Type ('railway', 'finger-ring', 'the Burton case', 'railway refreshment room', 'the South Welsh language', dead-letter office', 'a cat-and-dog life', 'New Year Eve fancy dress ball', 'snow-white dress'); (2) Equipollent Compounds ('The Franco-Prussian war'); (3) Genitival Compounds ('her warm mother's heart', 'his new captain's uniform'); (4) Prepositions and Adverbs ('Sunday afternoon concert', 'West of England vulgarisms', 'a penny-in-the-slot machine', "hand-to-hand fighting'); (5) Adjuncts with Compounds where the adjunct qualifies the whole compound ('comfortable bachelor lodgings', 'new and second-hand bookseller'); (6) Adjunct+Substantive Compounds where compounds consist of an adjective-adjunct and a substantive primary ('a first-rate second-hand bookshop'); there is a sub-type here when there is an adjuct to a not-expressed primary ('a bare-foot child'); (7) "Blue-eyed" type where words like 'blue-eyed' cannot be considered a compound of the words 'blue' and 'eyed', but consists of the ordinary junction 'blue eye' with the addition of a new element ('a kindhearted woman', 'common-sensible talk'); (8) Dissolved Compound when the first part of a compound is treated as an ordinary adjunct ('personal and party interests', 'a small family hotel'); (9) Isolated First Part when the first part of a compound may in some cases be used for the whole ('a twelfth-cake {short for twelfth-night cake}). Unfortunately, Jespersen gives very little explanation on his approach, and sometimes it is absolutely unclear why he attributes certain cases to this or that category.

Another approach is advocated by Axmanova (1948), and others, according to which prepositive attributive groups are regarded as units consisting of an attribute and a head word as an inseparable compound word. But if we regard the investigated prepositive phrases together with the head word as inseparable compound words, do not we admit then that joining of components of an attribute is in fact joining of bases? This point of view could be discarded due to a number of morphologic and syntactic reasons:

1) the components of these constructions can be separated from the defined noun by other words in the function of attribute (e.g., 'good-will speaking tour' -- поездка с целью пропаганды дружбы и сотрудничества),

2) the components of the attributive part can reveal syntactic relations, i.e. presense of conjunctions and prepositions. In case of sentence-structure attributes, there are members of the sentence depending on each other and preserving their original function (e.g., 'give-up-the-dream grin' -- усмешка, как бы говорящая: "Откажись от этой мечты"),

3) some components of prepositive attributes can have case endings (e.g., 'straight-from-the-horse's-mouth tip' - сведения из "первых рук"),

4) noun components can be preceded by an article (e.g., 'beat-the-sack strikes' -- забастовки, требующие прекращения увольнений).

It is worthwhile mentioning also the article of Buzarov (1989). The author examines the functioning of nouns in the position of adjectives with an attributive value, and differentiates three types of such structures: (1) one noun, concrete or abstract, as an attribute ('peace movement'), (2) chain of two or more nouns ('space shuttle disaster'), (3) syntactic structures with predicative relationships among the constituent members ('do-or-die situation'). The specifics of (3) are studied in more detail. The author notes the function of linguistic economy performed by structures in attributive position. Analysing the texts he comes to a conclusion that imperative structures are the principal model of (3), but exhortative, interrogative and affirmative models can also be attested. The author differentiates some attributive complexes of nouns according to their syntactic complexities,

and singles out some of them consisting of multilevel chains ('the its-my-money-now-do-as-you-are-told attitude').

In the present work, we will follow the approach developed by Levinbruk (1954), and Vitonite-Genene (1959 and 1964), and others who regard the prepositive groups of this type as phrases, or word combinations, the components of which are independent words.

Chapter II

Classification of English Integral Prepositive Attributive Phrases

As we mentioned before, all prepositive attributive phrases can be subdivided into three major classes: structurally open, partially open, and structurally closed. Depending on syntactic features, the structurally closed, or integral prepositive attributes can correspond to a:
I. sentence (simple or complex),
II. A) word combination, the components of which are connected by a conjunction, preposition, or infinitive particle,
B) word combination (usually two-member), the components of which are not connected by lexical means,
III. prepositional group which consists of a preposition and one full lexical word.

This classification, with subgroups in each class, is set out on Table I. Each subgroup will now be examplified.

Table I

Classification of Structurally Closed Prepositive Attributes

Sentence	Word combination		Prepos./Postpos. Group
I. Simple	A. With connector	B. Without connectors	A. Preceeding
1) V+Direct Object:	I. Conjunctions	1) N+Pres.Part	1) Prep+(Art)+N
- (Article)+N	1) N+Conj+N	2) N+Past Part	
- Pro	2) Adj+Conj+Adj	3) Adj+Past Part	B. Following
2) V+Indirect Object:	3) Adv+Conj+Adv	4) N+N	
- (Article)+N	4) Comp. Adj+Conj+N	5) Adj+Adj	
- Pro	5) Comp. Adj+Conj+Pro	6) N+Adj	
3) V+Adverbial Modifier	6) Adj+Conj+Indef.Art.+N	7) Adj+N	
- Prep+(Article)+N	7) Pro+Conj+Pro	8) Past Part+N	
- Adv	II. Prepositions	9) Num+N	
- (Art)+N+(Postpos.)	1) N+Prep+(Art.)+N	10) NO+N	
4) V+Pred complement	2) Adj(Part)+Prep+(Art)+N		
5) Interrogative type	3) Num+Prep+Num		
	4) Adv+Prep+(Def.Art)+N		
II. Compound	III. Infinitive Particle		
III. Complex			

2.1 Prepositive Attributes Structurally Corresponding to a Sentence

Structurally closed attributes corresponding to a sentence constitute approximately one third of all examples collected.

I. Attributes having the structure of a simple sentence are represented by the following types:

1) Verb+Direct Object where the Direct Object can be:

- (Article)+Noun
  E.g. 'the fasten-the-belts sign' -- табло "пристегнуть ремни"
- Pronoun
  E.g. 'make-it-yourself instruction' -- пособие "сделай сам"

2) Verb+Indirect Object where the Indirect Object is:

- (Article)+Noun
  E.g. 'the give-the-fishers-jobs demands' -- требования о предоставлении работы рыбакам

- Pronoun
  E.g. 'exterminate-them-all policy' -- политика, ставящая своей целью уничтожение всех [неугодных]

3) Verb+Adverbial Modifier where the Adverbial Modifier can be:

- Preposition+(Article)+Noun
  E.g. 'a flush-at-a-touch mechanism' -- механизм, пускающий струю при легком нажатии

- Adverb
  E.g. 'a come-here gesture' -- подзывающий жест

- (Article)+Noun+(Postposition)

  E.g. 'the new push-the-button-down weedkiller' -- новый гербицид в аэрозоли

4) Verb+Predicate Complement:

E.g. 'get-rich-quick swindle' -- мошенник, предлагающий быстро разбогатеть

5) Sometimes, prepositive attributive phrases can correspond in their structure to a interrogative, or exclamatory, or extended narrative sentence:

E.g. 'What-is-he-talking-about look on his face' --выражение на лице, как бы говорившее: "О чем он там говорит?"

In rare cases extended compound or complex sentences can be used as prepositive attributes:

II. Compound sentences:

E.g. 'do-or-die attempt' -- отчаянная попытка

III. Complex sentences:

E.g. 'He was being the boss again, using the it's-my-money-now-do-as-you're-told voice' (M. Wilson) -- Он опять стал боссом, вновь переходя на свой тон, как бы говоря: "Это мои деньги, теперь делай, как тебе говорят".

In some cases an exclamatory sentence can be part of a chain of sentences in preposition with the first sentence being narrative or imperative:

E.g. 'I expect that Mrs. Rym is taking the first train back London, said Beau in a now-look-what-you've-done tone' -- Я думаю, что миссис Рим уедет с первым поездом в Лондон, сказал Бо тоном, в котором звучал укор: "Ну вот, видишь, что ты наделал".

2.2 Prepositive Attributes Structurally Corresponding to a Word Combination

Attributive phrases structurally corresponding to a word combination constitute approximately two thirds of all examples. Within this sub-class we have defined two main groups:

2.21 A. Attributive Groups, the Components of which are Connected by a Preposition, Conjunction, or Infinitive Particle.

We can distinguish the following structural types:

2.211 Attributes the Components of which are Connected by a Conjunction:

1) Noun+Conjunction *and* +Noun

E.g. 'war-and-peace conference' -- конференция по вопросам войны и мира

2) Adjective+Conjunction *and* +Adjective

E.g. 'a blue-and-white frock' -- голубое с белым платье

3) Adverb+Conjunction *and/or* +Adverb

E.g. 'his now-and-forever love' -- его вечная любовь
'now-or-never determination' -- решимость "сейчас или никогда"

4) Adjective in comparative degree+Conjunction *than* + Noun

E.g. 'higher-than-average profit rate' -- рост прибыли выше среднего

5) Adjective in comparative degree+Conjunction *than* + Pronoun

E.g. 'the holier-than-thou tone' -- высокомерный тон

6) Adjective+Conjunction *as* +Indefinite article+Noun

E.g. 'beautiful-as-a-toy house' -- красивый как игрушка дом

7) Pronoun+Conjunction *or* +Pronoun

E.g. 'all-or-none decision' -- решение без компромиссов

2.212 Attributes with Components Connected by a Preposition:

1) Noun+Preposition+(Article)+Noun

E.g. 'on a case-by-case basis' -- на основе последовательного изучения ситуаций

'And so, after a modest end-of-the-day whisky and soda she will settle down with her papers' -- А затем, после скромной порции виски с содовой "на конец дня", она засядет за свои бумаги

In some cases the members of this structure can form the whole group of elements following each other:

E.g. '...his barrister-scientist-leader-of-the-opposition wife' --
... его жена, которая является одновременноадвокатом,,
деятелем науки, лидером оппозиции.

2) Adjective (or Qualitative Past Participle)+Preposition+
(Article)+Noun

Various prepositions such as: *for, from, to, by* can be used as connecting elements.

E.g. 'a ready-for-the-attack signal' -- сигнал готовности к атаке

'stranded-in-the-jungle appearance' -- вид как у
заблудившегося в джунглях

3) Numeral+Preposition+Numeral

E.g. 'nine-by-twelve foot picture' -- картина размером 9x12 футов

4) Adverb+Preposition+(Definite Article)+Noun

E.g. 'away-from-the-play tackle' -- стычка, вдали от
основной игры

2.213 Prepositive Attributes with the Infinitive Particle

E. g. 'easy-to-read articles' -- легкие для чтения статьи

2.22 B. Prepositive Attributes the Components of which are not Connected by Prepositions, Conjuctions or the Infinitive Particle.

In Modern English texts of various styles one can often find occasional formations generally represented by the following structure: "Noun+Present Participle", or "Noun+Past Participle". The fact that such

groups are widespread in the literature is caused by their ability to reflect a complex notion with the help of syntactically non-split construction, the first element of which denotes an object, and the second expresses the action which is being done in connection to this object. For example:

1) Noun+Present Participle:

'the earliest tool-using man' -- древнейший человек, использовавший орудия труда

2) Noun+Past Participle

'a battle-scarred warship' -- поврежденный в бою военный корабль

3) In some cases a similar type of construction is formed by an Adjective and a Past Participle:

'open-ended agreements' -- бессрочные соглашения

Quite often prepositive attributes are formed simply by adjoining of two or several nouns, numerals, or/and adjectives:

4) Noun+Noun:

E.g. 'beach-rescue boat' -- лодка спасательной станции

5) Adjective+Adjective

E.g. 'airy-fairy boy' -- витающий в облаках юноша

6) Noun+Adjective:

E.g. 'bomb-happy politics' -- воинственная политика

7) Adjective+Noun:

E.g. 'small-town manners' -- провинциальное жеманство

8) Past Participle+Noun

E.g. 'cut-price shop' -- магазин уцененных товаров

9) Numeral+(Noun)+(Article)+Noun:

E.g. 'one-man show'-- театр одного актера

10) Negation Particle No+Noun

E.g. 'a "no parking" corner' -- место на углу улицы, где стоянка запрещена

The given sub-type of prepositive attributes is probably closest to compound adjectives. In many cases it is even difficult to draw a distinct border-line between them. These attributes might be regarded as an intermediate class between compound adjectives and attributive word combinations.

2.3 Prepositive Attributes Structurally Corresponding to a Prepositional/Postpositional Group of Words

The given type is represented by comparitively of all examples collected. There are basically two main sub-types in this group: with preposition preceding, or following the fully lexical component:

1) Preposition+(Article)+Noun

E.g. 'They emerged sweet-smelling from their after-match showers' -- Приняв душ после матча, они вышли к публике, распространяя вокруг себя благоухание

E.g. 'under round-the-clock guard' -- под круглосуточной охраной

There is a variety of prepositions which can be used in the constructions of this type: *on, off, about, in, before,* etc. In some cases complex prepositions are found:

'out-of-control band' -- ансамбль, вышедший из-под контроля

Constructions with postpositions are quite rare:

E.g. 'bang-on hat' -- сногсшибательная шляпа
'watered-down version' -- слабое подобие

Distinguishing between the structurally closed or integral prepositive attributes and compound adjectives represents a certain difficulty. The definition of the prepositive attributive phrases discussed above, as compared to phraseological units and free syntactic constructions, cannot be done without: first, an attempt to distinguish fixed and non-fixed word combinations; second, the definition of transparent and opaque phrases; and third, a survey of combinability with the nouns being defined by the phrase. The problem of distinguishing integral attributes from compound adjectives will be reviewed from the point of lexicalization.

A word and a phraseological unit are characterized by the fact that they exist as ready-made units in a language. When, on the other hand, we are talking about a linguistic complex we must demonstrate its stability, which is not always the same as its repeatability.

From the point of view of stability the integral prepositive attributes can be divided into:
1) fixed (or stable),
2) non-fixed.

2.4 Fixed Phrases

We will consider the groups to be fixed when they are repeatable and recognized in the speakers' minds due to their traditional form and content, for example: 'guns-instead-of-butter economy' -- экономика, основанная

на принципе "пушки вместо масла". Fixed word combinations constitute approximately two thirds of all examples collected. They are found in practically all structural types, except attributes expressed by simple interrogative, compound or complex sentences. The majority of fixed word combinations fall into the following types:

- Noun+Preposition+Noun (e.g., 'day-by-day'/living,work, etc. [2.212, p. 25]

-Noun+Conjunction+Noun (e.g., 'life-and-death'/question, struggle, etc. [2.211, p. 24]

- Preposition+Definite Article+Noun (e.g., 'on-the-job'/mistakes, illustrations, etc. [2.3, p. 28]

- Adjective+Infinitive Particle+Verb (e.g., 'hard-to-swallow'/tidings, opinions, etc. [2.213, p. 26]),

- Word combinations structurally corresponding to a complex Imperative sentence (e.g., 'pay-as-you-go'/basis, system etc. [2.1, p. 22])

Depending upon the sources of examples, the word combinations in question have been often classified as adjectives, or phraseological units. Many authors understand the fusion of component words in a unit, and its transformation into a compound word, as lexicalization. From our point of view, lexicalization is rather a gradual process when a given fixed word combination, due to the semantic and structural closeness of its components, is transformed into a new whole lexical unit with grammatical indicators of a certain part of speech. As indicators of such a transition we can mention:

1) The use of the same attributes in post-position:

E.g. 'A man, down-to-earth in his principles'

2) Their functioning as a predicate:

E.g. 'He is well-to-do'

3) The ability to form comparative degrees:

E.g. 'This is more matter-of-fact than you think'.

Naturally, the presence of all these aspects may not be considered as prerequisite, since not all adjectives are found in the function of predicative member, and not all have comparative degrees. Nevertheless, to say that just one indicator, i.e. the function of prepositive attribute, can be sufficient is not enough because it would have justified inclusion of any semantically integrate group of words into the class of compound adjectives.

Research into these phenomena allows one to come to the conclusion that the majority of integral prepositive attributes do not have sufficient functional features of adjectives. The use of the integral attributes in preposition shows the possibility of uniting heterogeneous elements in similar syntactic functions, rather than the similarity of the elements themselves. However, there is a trend with some extensively used constructions to transfer into the class of compound adjectives (e.g., 'matter-of-fact' -- сухой, официальный, 'up-to-date' -- новейший, современный, 'down-to-earth' -- простой, незатейливый, etc.).

As we stated before, the remaining combinations, due to their phonetic, semantic and structural features display a certain approximation towards "wholeness of form", and, in a varying degree, bear an intermediate character between compound words and word combinations.

Within the fixed attributive constructions we may distinguish those that are opaque:

a) Phraseological units (e.g., 'flesh-and-blood person' -- человек из плоти и крови),

b) sayings and proverbs (e.g., 'the still-waters-run-deep women' (A. Sillitoe) -- женщины, тихие по внешнему виду, но страстные по натуре).

Other fixed word combinations are transparent; they have no divergence between the motivation and meaning (i.e. no ambiguity of logical and grammatical expression):

a) stock-phrases (e.g., 'get-rich-quick' (mania, merchant...),

b) sayings and proverbs without discrepancy of motivation and meaning (e.g., 'woman's-place-is-in-the-home' (attitude, movement...).

The broad combinability of the fixed word combinations points to their semantic and structural independence from the noun being defined. From this point of view these constructions can be divided into three main groups:

1) word combinations of broad combinability, i.e. those that can serve as attributes to a great number of nouns with various lexical meanings. For example, the word combination "do-it-yourself" can be combined with the nouns *embroidery, method, handbook, worker, tool* and many others. With broad compatability like this the attribute itself is stable regardless of the noun they define.

2) word combinations of limited combinability, i.e. those that can define only a few nouns of the same semantic field, or synonyms. For example, the word combination "faster-than-sound" (сверхзвуковой) is compatible only with nouns like 'plane' and 'aircraft'. Variaton in the noun being defined is strictly predetermined, and points to the permanent structural and semantic relation of the attribute and the head word.
3) word combinations of narrow combinability, i.e. those that can define only one noun. For example, the combination "heart-to-heart" (сердечный, "по душам") can be combined only with the noun 'talk'. In this case, we may admit that to a certain degree these combinations represent a lexical unity "attribute+head word" where not only the attribute is a fixed structure, but the whole expression itself.

2.5 Non-fixed Phrases

Non-fixed, or situational, word combinations constitute approximately one third of examples; they are created "on the spot", and are not characterized by assigned form and content. Structurally, they are represented almost by all the types reviewed in our classification, and unlike fixed-type combinations they can be expressed quite often by compound and complex sentences. However, we can single out the most wide-spread types:

1) word combinations structurally corresponding to a sentence [2.1, p. 22]

E.g. '...his now famous "we-can't-carry-people-for-fun" statement' -- ... его известное заявление о том, что его компания не может предоставлять транспортные услуги просто бесплатно.

2) word combinations Adjective+Conjunction *and* +Adjective [2.211, p. 24]

E.g. 'with paintings hung in green-and-white tents' -- с картинами, развешенными в зеленых с белым палатках

3) word combinations Adjective+Infinitive Particle+Verb [2.213, p. 26]

E.g. 'hardest-to-whiten things' -- наиболее трудно-отбеливаемые материалы

4) word combinations Numeral+Noun [2.22, p. 26]

E.g. 'a 10-hour flight' -- десятичасовой перелет

5) word combinations Numeral+(Noun)+Indefinite Article+Noun [2.22, p. 26]

E.g. '200-dollars-a-day room' -- номер стоимостью 200 долларов в сутки

Non-fixed phrases without the noun they define do not differ in any degree from free syntactic word combinations because: first, they are not

stable, i.e. formed in accordance with grammatical principles of the English language depending upon the given speech situation; second, the general meaning of a combination is basically a sum of meanings of the components as compared to fixed phrases where the new meaning is created by extension. Non-fixed constructions are not characterized by stability of form and content; however, in the given context they acquire some semantic, structural and phonetic features which approximate them to a compound word, and distinguish them from the free syntactic word combinations.

2.6 Stylistic Usage

From the point of view of stylistics, this research has shown that the given phenomena is mainly present in written speech. Only a small number of examples was found in direct speech sources. The most common structural types here are:

1) Noun+Conjunction+Noun (e.g., 'acrylic-and-cotton dress' -- платье из хлопчатобумажной ткани с синтетическим волокном "акрил" [2.211, p. 24]),

2) Noun+Preposition+Noun (e.g., 'hand-to-mouth existence' -- жизнь впроголодь [2.212, p. 25]),

3) Numeral+Preposition+Numeral (e.g., 'one-to-one correspondence' -- единичное соответствие [2.212, p. 25]),

4) Adjective+Infinitive Particle+Verb (e.g., 'hard-to-understand point' -- вопрос, который трудно понять [2.213, p. 26]),

5) Negation Particle 'No'+Noun (e.g., "no exit" sign -- табличка "выхода нет" [2.22, p. 26]).

The analysis of texts showed that the structurally closed prepositive attributes are used primarily in:

1) newspaper and magazine articles

E.g. 'The May-be-Hinkley-Did-It-But-The-Government-Helped theory' -- Версия, что Хинкли это сделал и правительство причастно к этому

2) advertisements and announcements

E.g. 'make-it-at-home furniture' -- мебель для сборки на дому

3) belles-lettres, where the attributes of the given type are mainly found in the author's narration

E.g. 'Those innocent I-don't-know-what-you're-talking about eyes' (A. Wesker) -- Эти невинные глаза, словно говорящие: "Я не понимаю, о чем вы рассказываете".

4) Quite rarely these constructions are found in scientific and technical literature

E.g. 'before-and-after aids' -- вспомогательные средства до и после проведения какого-либо технологического процесса

From the point of view of the purpose of statement, we can mention that the word combinations under investigation can have the following functions.

1) Short and compressed definition of a feature, object or event. This is especially typical of the style of newspaper and magazine articles when a prepositive attributive construction often replaces a substantial portion of text. In this case there are two possible ways. Sometimes, the attributive construction defines an event or an object first, and the meaning is revealed through the following text. This phenomena is often found in newspaper headlines. For example, in the headline *"Go Home" Snake Dance for Ike at Okinawa Base* , the prepositive attribute can only be understood from the information following in the article, i.e. that the protesting Japanese students in snake-like columns were calling for President Eisenhower to leave Japan. In the other variant, the description is given first, and later on

a prepositive attributive construction is used in referrence function. For example, in the text, the sentence like "I feel as though I was lucky to get back in one piece" later on can be substituted by a prepositive attribute in the form of elliptic sentence: 'the lucky-to-get-back-in-one-piece' statement of somebody.

2) Attributive groups can express the main predicative feature of a noun. This function is also characteristic of newspaper headlines (e.g., "Act-To-Save-Jobs Call in Steel City" -- Британские сталевары призывают действовать в целях сохранения рабочих мест).

3) Terminological function is found mainly with the constructions used in scientific and newspaper style. The structural types used here are usually limited to "Noun+Preposition+Noun" and "Noun+Conjunction+Noun" expressions (e.g., 'a rod-and-hook arrangement' -- узел, состоящий из стержня и крюка). Political, financial, economic terms are abundant in newspaper and magazine articles (e.g., 'a government-to-government initiative' -- инициатива межправительственного сотрудничества)

4) Metaphoric function is typical not only of the style of fiction and belles-lettres, but of the others as well. The metaphoric content can be found in socio-political and even finacial and economic terms. This can be especially evident when comparing prepositive attributes with synonymic adjectives: 'under-the-counter'='immoral, illegal'.
The metaphoric function is particularly well perceived in situational constructions expressed by a sentence used very extensively in fiction. The auther can employ a prepositive attributive group to present an unuttered statement with the help of a portion of direct speeech. For example: She had almost the "thank-you-I'm-not-that-sort-of-girl" sniffness about it (R. Aldington) -- С таким презрением, словно говоря: "Благодарю Вас, но я не из тех девушек"

Very often the statements of persons who had used them are transformed into prepositive attributes (e.g., 'He mumbled his usual "Better-than-I-deserve" reply to my how-do-you-do greeting' -- В ответ на мой вопрос о том, как он, он пробормотал свое обычное "лучше, чем я заслуживаю")

Word combination and prepositional groups can also transfer a relative feature with the help of metaphorical function. (e.g., 'life-and-death conflicts' -- конфликты не на жизнь, а на смерть)

Stylistic colouring of the expressions can also be regarded from the point of view of their affiliation to the colloquial and bookish styles. The overwhelming majority of examples have definite colloquial colouring due to the following lexical, morphological and syntactic characteristics: the use of habitual lexicon, slang, portions of direct speech, shortened and abbreviated forms (e.g., 'the gosh-what-I'll-give-them contingent' -- люди, которым трудно подобрать подарок).

Colloquial character is very often (but not always) combined with emotional colouring. The majority of word combinations can have humorous, ironic, or sarcastic connotation (cf. 'cloak-and-dagger boys' -- работними разведки , and "Say no to de Gaulle" movement -- движение сопротивления политике де Голля, the latter having rather declarative connotation).

The use of structurally closed attributes is connected to fulfilment of one or several stylistic tasks. That is why we can say that creation and implementation of such groups should be considered a special stylistic device to express compactness, terminological character, major predication and metaphoric connotation, which is closely connected to the emotional colouring. Comparing synonymic prepositive and postpositive groups, one can come to the conclusion that prepositive constructions are evidentely more compact and terminologically more convenient (cf '... the mistakes which result from trial and error methods of describing antibiotics', and '...the author, like other men, learns the method of trial and error' (S. Maugham).

Chapter III

Prepositive Attributive Phrases in Modern Russian: A Survey of the Literature

There is relatively little information to be found in the literature on this subject since most of the authors tend to concentrate on the subject of adjectives occurring singly. A difference in approach between the Soviet (or now Russian) and Western schools is noticeable with the latter putting the primary emphasis on transformational grammar. Due to the synthetic structure of Russian the essential vehicle for the expression of attribution is the adjective (or participial form), hence the question of defining the adjective within the frame of transformational grammar is very important. There exist two points of view on this subject. Some authors assume that the adjective is a derived part of speech (i.e. a surface structure category), not represented in deep structure, with the base deep structure category being the verb. Other authors consider adjectives an independent category with their own deep structure representation.

Let us review some aspects of the first approach, and its influence on the interpretation of Russian prepositive attributive phrases. Babby (1975) notes that the application of transformational grammar theory raises some questions, one of them being the syntactic relation between the long form and short form adjectives and participles. Babby claims that both forms derive from the same deep structure category V (verbal). In other words, the base phrase-structure rules do not generate the long and short forms. Later on the author shows that V, which is introduced by an expansion of VP (verb phrase) by the phrase structure rules, will emerge from the transformational component as a short form if it receives the features of gender, number, and person by an agreement transformation. The category V will emerge in the surface structure as a long form if, in addition to these agreement features, it receives a case feature. To put it in slightly different terms, the long form is a short form that has aquired a case feature by virtue of its transformational introduction into the constituency of a NP.

This kind of transformational analysis provides an explanation for the following phenomena: the long form appears to function as the active participle of the short form; the passive participle has both a long form and a short form, i.e. behaves syntactically just like an adjective, while the active participle has only a long form: prenominal adjectives and participles must be in the long form.

In Russian, deep structure categories seldom appear in the surface structure unaltered (with the exception of prepositions). For instance, according to Babby, V will appear in the surface structure as either a long form, a short form, or a manner adverb, or as a finite verb, active participle, infinitive, or gerund depending on the features it has acquired as a result of the operation of the transformational rules. Accordingly, long form and short form adjectives, active participles, etc., are all derived. A deep structure category plus its syntactic features are "spelled out" as long form and short forms, infinitive, etc., by the morphophonemic rules. It follows therefore that derived parts of speech are not dominated by nodes labelled "active participle", "long form adjective", etc. A derived part of speech should not be associated with any particular transformational rule since there are no transformations specialized for the sole purpose of deriving surface structure categories from deep structure categories. In other words, a given surface structure category can be derived from a deep category by more than one rule, and a given transformational rule may be involved in the derivation of more than one derived part of speech. So, Babby maintains that derived parts of speech are a by-product of the transformational component, and a given surface structure category is always derived from a particular deep structure category: it can never have two deep structure sources.

However, as Babby (1975:12) himself admits, it is not possible, using this theory, to account for all the derived verbal categories in Modern Russian. To modify his approach, he postulates that a derived part of speech can be defined only in terms of a deep structure category V plus acquired features in a "particular derived surface structure phrase marker configuration" which is more important than just the term 'feature'. After such corrections it is possible to redefine the derived parts of speech. For example, a finite verb will result when a deep structure V (having acquired

the features of gender, number, and person) appears in the following surface structure phrase marker configuration: [...[...V...]VP...]S. An active participle will be produced whenever a deep structure V, having acquired the features of Subject-verb agreement, is transformationally introduced into a NP where it receives a case feature. Accordingly, an active participle will appear in Russian whenever the surface structure contains the derived configuration [...[...[...V...]VP...]NP...]S. The surface structure of Russian will contain a gerund (деепричастие) whenever a deep structure V is transformationally introduced into the constituency of an adverbial phrase (AP); a gerund phrase (деепричастный оборот) is therefore simply an entire VP embedded in a AP. In a similar way, an active participle phrase is an entire VP embedded in an NP. A gerund in Russian must therefore be associated with the derived configuration [...[...[...V...]VP...]AP...]S. And finally, the infinitive can be associated with the following surface structure configuration: [...[...[...V...]VP...]VP...]S.

Applying this approach, Babby obtains four verbal parts of speech in Russian, each corresponding to V in each of the four non-lexical nodes that can immediately dominate VP, namely, S, NP, VP, AP. The reason that parts of speech are determined at the level of surface structure, and not deep structure, is that VP configurations appear in surface structures that are impossible in deep structure, which is determined by the phrase-structure rules.

Taking into account all the above-mentioned factors, Babby's point of view can be summarized in the following way. A part of speech in Russian must be defined in terms of a deep structure category, i.e. a category introduced by the base phrase structure rules, and this category's position in the final derived surface structure. The form of a surface structure part of speech, including its grammatical ending, is a function of its syntactic features, both inherent and acquired.

In the chapter "Adjectives and Relative Clauses" Babby (1975:23-31) reviews prenominal (i.e., prepositive attributive) adjectival phrases, and maintains that they are transformationally derived surface structure constituents and not base structures. At the level of deep structure the adjective is a verb with the feature [+Adj].

Russian grammar traditionally views both prenominal and predicate position of the adjective as basic. If we try to make this view more explicit by stating it in the form of a Phrase-structure grammar, we have to introduce the symbol ADJ in two different settings:

(1) NP -- DET+ADJ+N
(2) VP -- Copula+ADJ

In other words, the traditional treatment assumes that the adjective is both a NP and VP constituent at the level of deep structure. This fails to capture the fact that there are selectional restrictions for ADJ+N and N+Copula+ADJ. A generative grammar can capture generalizations of this kind, while grammars without transformations have no way of expressing them.

Babby notes that ADJ+N and N+Copula+Adj are transformationally related. The selectional restrictions, consequently, need to be stated only for the underlying structure and these restrictions will be maintained under all subsequent transformations. Babby states that the symbol ADJ should be introduced only as an expansion of the VP, i.e. N+Copula+ADJ is the underlying structure and ADJ+N is transformationally derived from it. So, the adjective and verb are the same lexical category (verbal), and participles are derived by the same transformations that derive long forms of the adjective.

Babby examines the relations in the phrases: (1a) Девушка работает 'The girl is working', and (1b) работающая девушка 'the working girl'; and (2a) Девушка умна 'The girl is smart', and (2b) умная девушка 'the smart girl'. Basing himself on the above-stated conclusions, Babby shows that there is a syntactic parallel between (1) and (2), and hence (1a) is underlying for (1b), and (2a) is underlying for (2b).

Another argument for N+Copula+ADJ as the deep structure of ADJ+N constructions can be found in 'obmykanie' ('обмыкание') constructions. This term was used by Bauer et al. (1966), who defined such constructions as an NP in which the head noun is modified by an entire preposed VP ([Det-VP-N]$_{NP}$). This is illustrated by the following examples: [все[нужные для строительства]$_{VP}$ материалы]$_{NP}$. 'Обмыкание'-constructions are

derived from deeper reduced relative clauses by the Modifier Shift Transformation, i.e. in this case: все материалы, которые нужны для строительства, and then все материалы, нужные для строительства. These phenomena are probably closest to the material being studied in the present work.

Babby reviews the constructions of the following type:

(3a) полная солнца комната -- 'the full-of-sun room'
(3b) готовый на все студент -- 'the ready-for-anything student'

He states that if we allow ADJ to be introduced in our base Rules as an expansion of NP, then these rules will also have to generate the 'obmykanie' constructions.

The NP expansion needed to generate (3a) and (3b) can be represented by (3c) and (3d) respectively:

(3c) DET+ADJ+N+N
(3d) DET+ADJ+P+N +N
[+PRO]

...из монографий второго рода назовем написанную четверть века назад, но свежую и актуальную по проблематике работу Лаврова.

'from monographs of the second type let us name Lavrov's written-a-quarter-of-a-century-ago-but-fresh-and-current-in-its-range-of-problems work'.

According to Babby (1975:25), it is incorrect to view the "obmykanie' construction in this example as an NP expansion. If we, however, introduce ADJ in the VP, the "obmykanie" constructions can easily be handled without special means: they can be shown to be preposed adjectival complements and are introduced by the Base Rule in the same way that verb complements are introduced.

Let us review another example of parallellism between the short form adjective and verb.

(4a) Учитель придирается к ученикам из-за пустяков
'The teacher finds fault with the students over trifles'
(4b) [придирающийся к ученикам из-за пустяков учитель]$_{NP}$
['the finding-fault-with-the-students-over-trifles teacher']$_{NP}$

It is worthwhile noticing that the order of elements in an 'obmykanie' construction is identical to the order of elements in a verb complement.

If the adjective is introduced by an expansion of NP, there is no explanation of the relations among sentences with long and short forms:

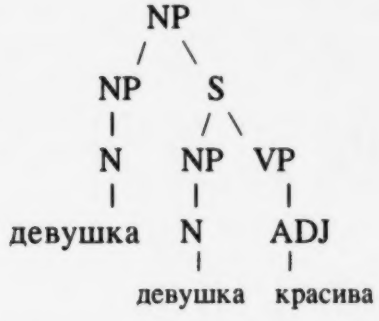
(5a) [готовая на все девушка]$_{NP}$
'the ready-for-anything girl'
(5b) Девушка готова на все
'The girl is ready for anything'
(5c) *Девушка готовая на все
(5d) *[готова на все девушка]$_{NP}$

In order to find an explanation Babby reviews the following examples:
(6a) умная девушка
'a smart girl'
(6b) очень умная девушка
'a very smart girl'
(6c) *очень девушка
*'a very girl'

If ADJ is introduced in the NP by the Base Rules, i.e. is a deep structure NP constituent, then the rules must be constrained so as to allow the optional introduction of an adverb just in case ADJ is already modifying the head. If, however, ADJ is a deep structure VP constituent and, consequently, prenominal adjectives that can be modified by a degree ADV are introduced into the NP by transformation.

Now Babby specifies how the formulas ADJ+N and N+Copula+ADJ are related. To do this he has to assert that ADJ+N is a nominalization of the underlying N+Copula+ADJ sentence. A nominalization is a transformation which changes a S into an NP and which preserves the grammatical relations of the S. The nominalization of, for instance, девушка красива 'the girl is pretty' is [красота девушки]$_{NP}$ 'the prettiness of the girl', and not [красивая девушка]$_{NP}$ 'the pretty girl'.

The derivation of ADJ+N directly from N+Copula+ADJ fails to reflect the fact that ADJ+N is, in most of the cases, semantically equivalent to a relative clause: красивая девушка is synonymous with девушка, которая красива 'the girl who is pretty'. These considerations lead Babby (1975:28) to the conclusion that prenominal adjectives are derived from relative clauses, which at the level of deep structure, are embedded sentences. So, the deep structure configuration of красивая девушка 'the pretty girl' is:



The set of transformations (Relative Clause Formation, Relative Clause Reduction, and Modifier Shift) convert deep structures of the above example into ADJ+N surface structures. These same rules relate to the NPs:

(7a) читающая книгу девушка
'the girl reading a book'
(7b) девушка, которая читает кингу
'the girl who is reading a book'

Dudnikov (1958) and Boguslavskij (1964), to whom Babby refers, even claim that the native speakers have an intuitive feeling that ADJ+N and

N+Relative clause are related, which could be seen from the following examples (from Dudnikov (1958):

(8a) Вдали виднелись маленькие домики, которые были едва заметны на фоне бесконечного снежного простора
'In the distance small houses could be seen, which were barely visible against the background of the endless stretch of snow'

(8b) Вдали виднелись едва заметные на фоне бесконечного снежного простора маленькие домики
'In the distance could be seen barely-visible-against-the-background-of-the-endless-stretch-of-snow small houses'

The given approach also helps to account for two kinds of relative clauses in Russian: restrictive and non-restrictive (Smirnickij 1957:94-95). If prenominal adjectives are derived from underlying relative clauses, we should expect them to possess precisely those distinctions that relative clauses do, i.e. prenominal adjective (i.e. attributive phrases) should be ambiguous with respect to restrictive-appositive meaning. This was shown by Jespersen (1958:112). In the phrase "The industrious Japanese will conquer in the long run" it is not clear if the Japanese as a nation will conquer, because they are industrious (non-restrictive adjunct), or that some some industrious among the Japanense will conquer (restrictive adjunct).

In Russian we observe the same phenomena:

Наши трудолюбивые рабочие выполняют план
'Our industrious workers are fulfilling the plan'

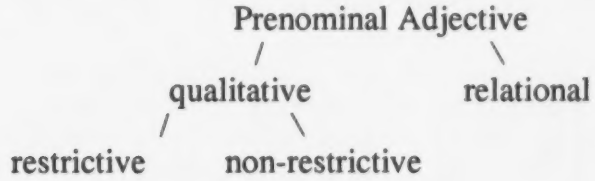
If we do not view prenominal adjectives as derived from relative clauses, there would be no way to account for this ambiguity. A sentence containing a prenominal adjective which is ambiguous in two ways must have at least two deep structures, each containing a different relative clause configuration.

With all this, Babby, however, admits that many concrete examples contradict the assumption that all prenominal adjectives are derived from

relative clauses. He reviews examples like отрицательные высказывания 'negative utterances' which has two readings 'utterances negative in form', and 'utterances negative or adverse in meaning'. Futhermore, with the first meaning the adjective cannot appear in the short form; эти высказывания отрицательны can only mean 'adverse'. Hence, Babby assumes that prenominal adjectives have at least one source other than relative clauses, because semantic and syntactic differences of отрицательный cannot both derive from the underlying structure высказывания, которые отрицательны 'utterances which are negative', especially since the 'negative in form' meaning cannot appear in the short form. As long as transformational grammar was elaborated on the basis of English, which does not distinguish the long and short forms, this has not been a subject for discussion.

The ambiguity here corresponds to the traditional Russian distinction between the qualitative adjective, which has a short form, and the relational adjective, which does not. However, it has been widely recognized by Russian grammarians that relational adjectives may be used in a qualitative function.

Prenominal adjectives then exhibit two kinds of ambiguity.



Since relational adjectives do not derive from relative clauses, they do not display the clausal ambiguity discussed above, notes Babby (1975:31).

Babby's approach is in agreement with the assumption of Harris (1952) and Chomsky (1957) that attributive adjectives are related to underlying predicates, and that they are transformationally derived from deeper relative clauses, i.e. embedded sentences (Smith (1961) and Ljung (1970)).

Levine (1978) offers another approach to this problem. He criticizes "morphophonemic spelling rules" to account for the morphological details of inflection in the long form adjective. The author presents an alternative analysis.

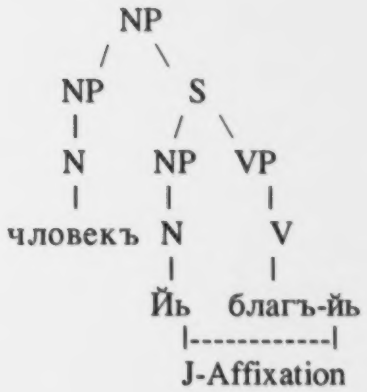
Levine says that descriptions of Contemporary Russian by linguists operating within both traditional and generative frameworks assume the relative pronoun to be the morpheme KOTOP-, plus inflectional endings. So, in generative analysis of Russian adjectives proposed by Babby, the structure

[[девушк-]NP[[девушк-]NP[красив-]VP]S]NP
'girl' 'girl' 'is pretty'

which acts as the underlying representation of the NP красивая девушка 'pretty girl' undergoes the process of Relative-clause Formation to produce the intermediate configuration

[[девушк-]NP[[котор-]NP[красив-]VP]S]NP
'girl' 'who' 'is pretty'

Levine tries to propose that what is traditionally considered a morphologically whole inflectional ending in long form adjectives, actually contains the relative pronoun morpheme Й, and that it is a surface configuration, transformationally obtained by the prefixation of KOTOP- to this same morpheme. In his analysis, Levine refers to Old Russian with its relative morpheme Й (Й-ь nom masc) followed by the suffixed particle -же. It is considered (Vaillant 1942:5) that the relative pronoun eventually became affixed to a regular short adjective to create the long form. This is confirmed by the synonymous readings of ADJ+N phrases and corresponding relative clauses. For example, the NP благы (благ ъ - йь) чловекъ 'the good man' and the relative clause чловекъ иже (йь-же) благъ 'the man who is good' are identical constructions. If this approach is accepted, then ADJ(long form)+N phrases could be analysed as deriving from the deep structure underlying corresponding relative clauses. Levine calls this transformational rule "J-Affixation", when the relative pronoun morpheme would be detached from the N-node and affixed to the right of the short form adjective:



Then, by using Modifier Shift Rule, the derived long form of the adjective is moved to the left of its head noun, and this gives the surface configuration благы (благъ-йь) человекъ.

The view that is Й still the relative pronoun morpheme in Contemporary Russian and that the proposed rule of
J-Affixation is still working, finds support from the following morphological and syntactic considerations. Zaliznjak (1967) tries to prove that the inflectional endings of attributive adjectives in Russian contain a morpheme which functions as the marker of 'long formedness'. He bases his analysis on a comparison of long form adjectives and their corresponding short forms:

жив-ой	жив-айа	жив-ойо	жив-ийи
жив	жив-а	жив-о	жив-и

Zaliznjak notes that the long form adjectives in their endings have a vowel identical to the vowel in the corresponding short form adjective plus a 'a special morphological element' Й, followed by a vowel which is a copy of the one immediately preceding this element. Zaliznjak calls the morpheme Й the 'marker of attributive function'. If we accept this point of view that the inflectional endings of long form adjectives in Contemporary Russian are complex items of the structure V_1+ Й+V_1, where Й is the long formedness morpheme, then it is possible to assume that this morpheme Й

is the same relative pronoun which Valliant claims was affixed to the short form adjectives to create long forms in Old Russian.

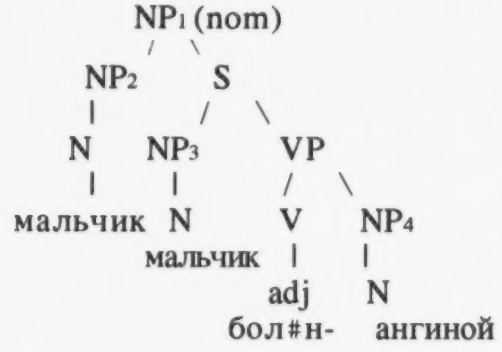
This, according to Levine, makes it possible to explain some syntactic facts about attributive adjectives and corresponding relative clauses with predicative adjectives. He reviews the following examples:

(a) [Мальчик, который болен (SF) ангиной]$_{NP}$, должен лежать целую неделю
'The boy who is ill with quinsy has to stay in bed all week.'
(b) [Мальчик больной (LF) ангиной]$_{NP}$, должен лежать целую неделю
'The boy ill with quinsy has to stay in bed all week.'
(c)*Мальчик, который больной ангиной, должен лежать целую неделю
'The boy, who is ill with quinsy has to stay in bed all week.'

Sentence (a) consists of a relative clause introduced by КОТОРЫЙ 'who', and contains the predicate adjective (short form) болен 'ill'. Sentence (b) is a reduced version of sentence (a), containing больной 'ill' (long form) but not the relative pronoun. Sentence (c) contains both КОТОРЫЙ and больной. Levine proposes new variant of analysis, different from Babby's, and also gives the explanation of the default sentence.

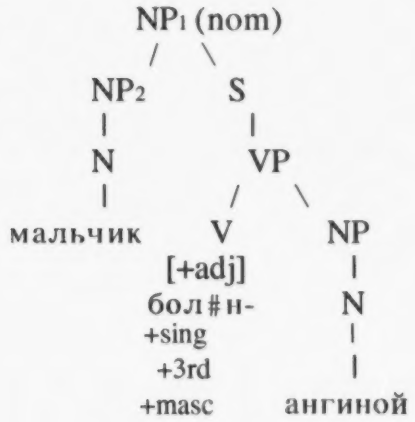
According to Babby, the deep structure of the NPs in (a) and (b) will be:

(2)



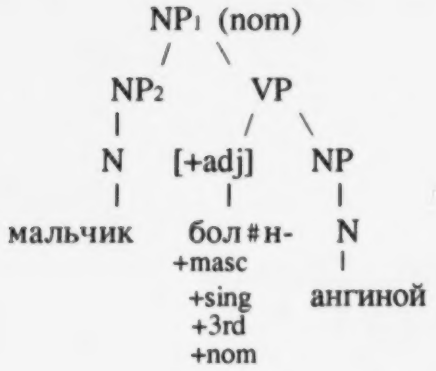
The derivation of (a) from (2) according to Babby, involves the following transformations: Subject-verb Agreement copies the features of [мальчик]$_{NP3}$ (gender, number and person) onto the main verb бол#н- 'ill', giving (masc sing 3rd); and Relative-clause Formation converts [мальчик]$_{NP3}$ to КОТОРЫЙ masc sing nom 'who, or which'. By the morphophonemic rules бол#н- (masc sing 3rd) is changed into болен (short form). The derivation of (b) from (2) involves both previous rules plus the operational transformation of Relative-clause Reduction which gives

(3)



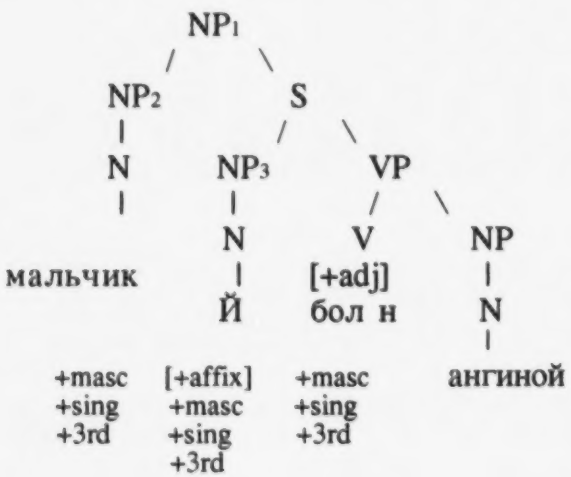
This structure is then further converted by the rule of S-node Deletion which gets rid of S and results in the introduction of бол#н- (masc sing 3rd) into the constituent NP$_1$ where it receives its case feature (nominative) by the rule of Case Marking. Babby again assumes that the morphophonemic rules will later change бол#н- plus the features acquired by Subject-verb Agreement and Case Marking, as больной (long form) masc sing nom 'ill'.

(4)



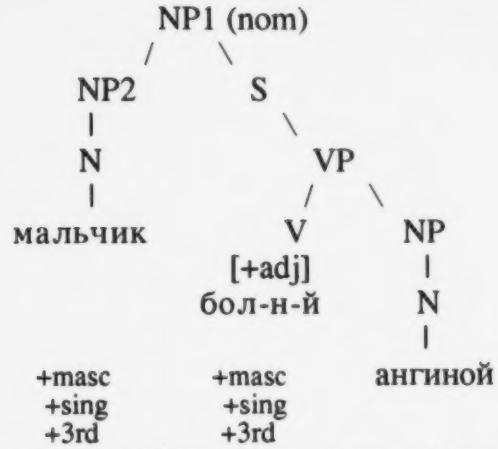
Levine's analysis differs from that of Babby's in the assumption that Й and not КОТОР- is the relative pronoun morpheme in Contemporary Russian. As in Babby's analysis his derivation of (a) involves both Subject-verb Agreement and Relative-clause Formation rules, except that the latter rule relativizes [мальчик]NP3 to Й.

(5)



To account for the relative pronoun morpheme, Levine proposes two rules: J-Affixation that attaches to the lexical item at the V-node (бол-н) to allow for the creation of the long form adjective (бол-н-й), or the rule of КОТОР-Support, inserting КОТОР- to the left of Й, giving КОТОР-Й.

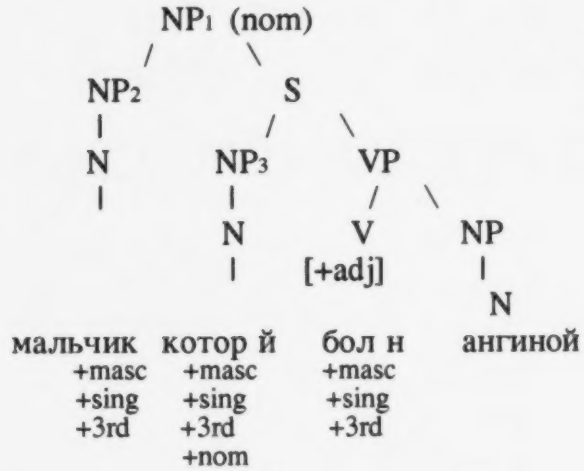
(6)



The structure (6) will then have S-node deletion and Case Marking, the latter supplying the nominative case feature to бол-н-й which together with features of gender (masc) and number (sing) constitute necessary information for the lexical insertion of the appropriate endings, i.e. больной.

The structure (7) has no additional syntactic transformations. The case feature needed for the selection of ending to the NP КОТОР, Й is supplied by the the subject position of this NP in the embedded clause. So, the features nom, masc, sing will provide the information needed for the lexical insertion of endings, plus phonology rules, giving КОТОРЫЙ.

(7)



Both analyses equally well explain the formation of long form adjectives. However, Levine's view allows us to explain why sentences like *Мальчик, который больной ангиной containing both the surface relative pronoun and a long form adjective are ungrammatical. If Й is the same morpheme that occures in both words then the two forms cannot co-occur in the same clause. Levine also argues that long form adjectives are not merely short forms that have acquired the features of gender, number and case, which later appear as inflectional endings, rather they, in addition to these features, have united with the relative pronoun morpheme by the rule of J-Affixation.

It is also interesting to review a different approach developed by Corbett (1993) whose analysis was aimed at determining the head words in different constructions. Corbett concentrates on attributive phrases containing numerals, demonstratives and adjectives (for example, эти две интересные кинги), and notes that the genitive plural of the adjective is also quite acceptable in this case (эти две интерсных книги). The only way to deal with this problem, according to Corbett, is to assume that the adjective is the head in the adjective-noun phrases, when in phrases with numerals, the numeral becomes the head for the adjective, which is in turn head of noun. Reviewing examples with various numerals, like один, два, три, пять, тысяча, миллион, he notes that the likelihood of the genitive plural being used increases (тысяча интересных книг, not тысяча интересные книги). Corbett states that as the numerals get larger, they become more noun-like. Later on, Corbett discusses what he refers to as "Worth's riddle" when another element is added to this type of phrases, namely a post-nominal adjectival phrase:

(1) две белые розы, утонувшие в красной луже
'two white roses drowned in red pool'
(Bulgakov, Master i Margarita)

(2) два больших куска стекла, обернутых в тряпку
'two large pieces of glass, wrapped in a rag'
(Trifonov, Starik)

The two phrases differ in the use of the nominative and genitive cases with the pre-nominal adjectives. However, the mixed use of cases is possible as well:

(3) три латвийских мужика, почти позабывшие родину
'three Latvian peasants, who had almost forgotten their homeland'

(Trifonov, Starik)

Corbett postulates that in the last example почти позабывшие родину depends directly on the head of the phrase, три, i.e. it is attached at a higher level of structure, while the genitive is imposed on the quantified phrase.

The author claims that the examples like (1) are structurally ambiguous, since there is no evidence that the genitive has been imposed by the numeral: if it has not been, then the adjectival phrase may depend on the numeral or on the noun and in either situation the nominative results.

Ultimately, Corbett comes to the conclusion that the numeral has to be taken as the head in Russian constructions consisting of numeral plus nominal phrase, however, the picture becomes less clear when a nominal phrase consists of adjective plus noun. Corbett maintains, then, that the adjective is the head of adjective-noun constructions in Russian, an analysis which has already been proposed by Miller (1989).

The approaches of Babby, Levine and Corbett, which are reviewed in the present chapter, can help only indirectly regarding the purpose of our research, since the investigation of deep structure representation was not included as our immediate goal. However, they may be useful for the extended research in this area.

The Russian traditional grammar school tends to have a different approach to this kind of analysis. It avoids the issues of transformational grammar and concentrates mainly on the surface representation. As far as the subject of prepositive attributive phrases is concerned, it has not been investigated in its entirety. Various authors seem to concentrate on very narrow

questions, e.g., the semantic relations of adjectival or participial groups, or their stylistic use, etc.

The most extensive research on the subject of Russian word combinations, or phrases, in general, and on adjectival and participial constructions is, probably, that of Prokopovič (1962, 1966 and 1974). Let us review some of the aspects of this research.

Prokopovič pays a great deal of attention to the definition of the word combination itself. Reviewing approaches of many authors, like J. Ries, M.N. Peterson, A.M. Peškovskij, A.A. Saxmatoya, F. de Saussure, L. Bloomfield, N.S. Trubeckoj, C. Bally, L.V. Ščerba, and others, Prokopovič tends to incline towards the definitions made by F.F. Fortunatov and V.V. Vinogradov. The former basically describes a word combination as "that kind of entity in meaning, which is formed by the combination of one full word (not a particle) with another full word, no matter whether it is an expression of a whole psychological statement or an expression of its part" (Fortunatov 1957:451). Fortunatov distinguishes a statement as "a sentence in thought, which is different from a grammatical sentence as 'a sentence of speech', being the subject of grammar analysis". However, according to Fortunatov, the grammatical sentence is just a special type of word combination (although dominating), i.e. a complete word combination. All other word combinations Fortunatov names incomplete. With all this, in contradiction to the above mentioned definition of the word combination as two-word entity, Fortunatov also singles out compound word combinations, i.e., those that "contain other word combinations as their compound part, being the expression of compound parts of a psychological statement" (Fortunatov 1957:455).

Basing himself on this theory of the form of a single word, and taking it as the basis for distinguishing of word combinations, Fortunatov divides them into:

a) grammatical, i.e. those in which the relations between the object of thought are expressed by the language forms (e.g., хорошая погода), and

b) non-grammatical, i.e. those in which the above stated relations are not expressed by the language forms (e.g. поэт Пушкин). As we can see, in

expressions of this type it is even impossible to define the head word precisely (i.e., 'poet who is Pushkin', or 'Pushkin who is a poet'). The words seem to be simply adjunct to each other, and their combination seems to be based more on logical grounds.

The syntactic system of Fortunatov reveals certain limitations. Here we can mention the mechanical understanding of relationship between speech and thinking, and an excessively wide understanding of the word combination that erodes the border line between the sentence and word combination. On the other hand, this approach is very important since Fortunatov discovered a whole new direction in syntax defining the word combination as an independent category and making it the major object of syntactic study.

Prokopovič adopts this approach, and defines the word combination as a syntagm (i.e. word combinations which do not perform communicative function, and, consequently, do not form a sentence (non-predicative combinations)). He postulates that a syntagm can perform communicative function only as part of the sentence, or when they themselves are transformed into a sentence by the process of predication.

Prokopovič distinguishes two major groups of word combinations:

a) sociative, or open, not closed strings of words (sociative, i.e., coordinative syntagms),
e.g. тихий и задумчивый -- 'quiet and thoughtful'

b) subordinate, or closed (subordinate syntagms)
e.g. почтенная краснодонская семья -- 'respected family from Krasnodon'

Subordinate combinations are always binary by virtue of their structure, while the sociative combinations are not necessarily so. In contrast to sociative combinations, subordinate groups have a number of common features. They are composed of a head word and an attribute. Adjectives and participles can be defined by non-changeable parts of speech (i.e. adverbs), nouns in oblique cases, pronouns in oblique cases, infinitives and other words that can perform the function of noun.

Prokopovic also pays considerable attention to the question of features which draw word combinations closer to words. Like words, according to the author, word combinations are devoid of predication: word combinations do not have the syntactic categories of modality, tense and person. Their closeness to words is especially revealed in the ability of word combinations to act as a nominative means, i.e. to be used to name objects, events, processes, qualities, etc. (e.g., as in substantive word combinations with a subordinate adjective or participle: известный актер- 'a well-known actor', or in adjectival word combinations: оригинальный по форме -- 'original in form', or word combinations of adjectives with adverbs: морально устойчивый -- 'morally stable'). Some of such word combinations come very close to compound adjectives, and are used to denote integral, although complex, qualities or featuers of objects. This creates ambiguity and mixing of notions of word combinations and compound adjectives, and very often creates problems with their graphic representation - as one word, as hyphenated words, or as separate words. Thus, word combinations, revealing in some cases more integrity of their components, and less in others, are grammatically organized entities, and are able to act in the nominative function, getting closer to words in this respect, although they do not become identical to them, and retain clear difference even from compound words. "A word (including compounds) is always whole in form, while a word combination is always an aggregate of grammatically organized components, always a unit formed separately" (Smirnickij 1952:197).

In Russian, as in some other languages, there is a very strong inclination towards the transformation of word combinations, under certain favourable lexical and
semantic conditions, into entities whole in form, i.e. words. Very often it is combinations of a noun and subordiante adjective. The substitution can follow several trends. First, the head word can be omitted and the subordinate adjective be substantivized without any morphological change (военный -- a military man). There are cases, too, when the adjective is omitted (... у девочки уже три дня температура ... -- 'the girl has had high temperature for three days'). Second, word combinations can be substituted by suffixed nouns, formed from the subordinate adjective (передовая статья » передовица -- 'editorial'). Third, word

combinations are transformed into compound adjectives or participles (глубокоуважаемый -- 'well-respected'). Free, or sociative word combinations also combine into compound adjectives (профессорско-преподавательский состав -- 'the staff of professors and instructors').

Following the definition of word combinations as a unit of two (simple word combinations) or more (complex word combinations) full lexical words, Prokopovič gives a classification of complex attributive word combinations and defines three main types.

I. Simple word combination plus a single subordinate word:

... к тем близким ему по крови людям ...
'to those people close to him by blood'
(Mamin-Sibiriak, The Privalov Millions)

There are some features typical of this group:

a) The subordinate word, defining the simple word combination, refers in meaning to the whole of it and not to the head word of the attribute.
b) The attached subordinate relates grammatically to the head word of the attribute by means of coordination or subordination relations.
c) The subordinate word defining the simple word combination, and the subordinate word inside the former, are not connected grammatically or in meaning
d) The complex word combinations of this type are always binary: there is always a model of a simple word combination within it.

II. Head word plus a simple word combination that is subordinate to it:

E.g ... шокировала покорную приличиям света натуру Хионии Алексеевны -- '...shocked Hionia Alekseevna's nature, humble to the decorum of society...'
(Mamin-Sibiriak, The Privalov Millions)

These word combinations can be subdivided into those that can include three or more words in the attributive section due to semantic insufficiency

(the above example), or those that can have both simple or complex word combinations (кудрявый от кустарника, или кудрявый от зеленого кустарника -- 'curly with bushes', 'curly with green bushes').

Prokopovič mentions a few features that are typical of this group:
a) The dependent component, which defines the head word of the attribute is not a single word but a word combination. Without losing its sematic, nominative unity, it augments in a certain respect the head word in general, and together with the former expresses a more complicated, and more concretized, but whole meaning.
b) The subordinate word within the simple word combination is related grammatically and in meaning only to the head word of this simple word combination.
c) Any regrouping of elements in this type of word combinations, in contrast with the first type, is impossible.
d) Similarly to the first type, the word combinations of this group are always binary; i.e. there is always a model of a simple two-word word combination in the basis of their formation.

III. Head word plus two or more subordinate words, not connected to each other and not forming a word combination.

...диаметрально противиположный плану выхода на Калужскую дорогу проект... -- '...the project diametrally opposite to the plan of exit on the Kaluga road...'

(L. Tolstoy, War and Peace)

According to Prokopovič, the overcomplication of a word combination cannot not be limitless. Appearance of new relations among the components, which are typical of the sentence or its members (predication, modality, etc) does not allow us to include them into word combinations:

На красном (очевидно, от невоздержания) лице ... -- 'On the red (apparently, due to non-abstention) face...'

(L. Tolstoy, War and Peace)

Prokopovič also states that adjectives or participles can be defined by a subordinate component having the form of a subordinate sentence.

влажная после того, как прошел дождь, земля
влажная после дождя земля
'ground wet after the rain'

These attributes can be subdivided into two groups, in one of which the subordinate element is compulsory, while in the other it is optional. The subordinate clause can also be accented, which is emphasized by the intonation and also reflected in punctuation.

Although word combinations do not have the category of modality, as Prokopovič stated earlier, they can contain some elements with modal connotation. These are adverbs that combine the functions of adverb and a modal word. While adjoined to an adjective or participle, they express not so much a qualitative characteristic, but modal meanings of authenticity, reliability of the source:

...не отступая от некоторых, несомненно справедливых обвинений....
'not stepping back from some truly just accusations'

Sometimes these adverbs are similar in form to nouns with prepositions (без сомнения, по сути).

In spite of all its positive aspects, Prokopovič's description seems to be unsystematic, although his descriptions and analysis proved to be very useful to the systematisation in Chapter IV.

Chapter IV

Classification of Russian Prepositive Attributive Phrases

Using the same approach as in Chapter II of the present thesis, i.e. taking structural peculiarities and divisibility of phrases as the basis, we will distinguish three major types of prepositive attributive phrases in Contemporary Russian.

4.1 Structurally Open Attributive Phrases

These attributes express separate and independent features of the noun being defined, and, consequently, refer to it independently (cf. 1.2, p. 12).

E.g. толстая тяжелая книга -- 'thick old book'

As we stated before such phrases include several sematically independent words.

4.2 Partially Open, or "Chain" Attributive Phrases

The components of such attributes define each other in a "chain type" manner. The character of the combination of the components influences their structural divisibility and reference to the noun being defined. The attributes of this category allow division of the structure and deletion of the first component without the complete destruction of the meaning, since part of its connotational meaning remains preserved (cf. 1.3, p. 12).

E.g. Белорусский государственный политехнический институт --
'Belorussian State Polytechnical Institute'

4.3 Structurally Closed, or Integral Attributive Phrases

Phrases of this category perform the function of attributes as a whole unit; they may not be separated by other parts of the sentence. They constitute one member of the sentence (cf. 1.4, p. 13).

E.g. ... нигде не могли бы достовернее сказать о широко известном в городе актере ... -- '... nowhere could have been spoken more trustworthily about the actor widely known in the city ...'
(Fedin, An Extraordinary Summer)

Besides the main three types there are numerous phrases of a mixed type:

E.g. большой и очень добрый пес -- 'a big and very kind dog'

Within the third type of prepositive attributive phrases we can define the following main subtypes:

1. Adjectives or participles with a subordinate adverb

2. Adjectives or participles with subordinate nouns or pronouns with or without prepositions

3. Adjectives or participles plus a subordinate infinitive

4. Adjectives or participles with the relative pronouns как или словно

5. Adjectives or participles defined by a subordinate sentence.

4.31 Adjectives and Participles with Subordinate Adverbs

Within this subtype we can distinguish several models of phrases depending on the category of the subordinate adverb:

a) Phrases with qualitative adverbs. Here we can single out two types: adverbs ending in -о(-е) and -ски(-цки).

E.g. чрезвычайно захватывающее представление -- 'extremely thrilling performance'
дружески заботливый голос -- 'friendly-caring voice'

b) Phrases with quantitive adverbs. This type can be subclassified into combinations with:

(i) quantitive adverbs not related (not derived) to adjectives, or those that were once related but have lost this relationship (очень, совсем, едва, почти)

E.g. Радость произвела в больном слишком сильное впечатление - 'Happiness caused an excessively strong impression on the patient' (Pushkin, Dubrovsky)

(ii) quantative adverbs related to adjectives (довольно, бесконечно, крайне, варварски)

E.g. ... что купленные им крестьяне отменно смирного характера -- '...that the peasants purchased by him are of notably humble character' (Gogol, The Dead Souls)

(iii) quantitative adverbs related to numerals (дважды, вдвойне, удесятеренно):

E.g. Привалов испытивал вдвойне неприятное и тяжелое чувство -- 'Privalov was experiencing a doubly-unpleasant and grievous feeling' (Mamin-Sibiriak, The Privalov Millions)

c) Phrases with qualitative circumstantial adverbs. The phrases can be subdivided into combinations with:

(i) adverbs related to adjectives with the affix по- (по-осеннему, по-девичьи, по-детски)

E.g. ... в плотной шапке черноватых, по-цыгански курчавых волос- '... in the tight cap of blackish, gypsy-curly hair' (Gorky, The Artamonovs' Case)

(ii) adverbs of various morphological types (втайне, тайком, впору)

E.g. богатые невпроворот староверы-казаки -- 'awfully rich cossack Old Believers'

(Sholokhov, The Quiet Don)

d) Phrases with circumstantial adverbs. These phrases can be subdivided into:

(i) combinations with adverbs of time (всегда, вечно, постоянно, когда-то)

E.g. ... когда очутились мы в давно знакомой комнате -- '... when we found ourselves in the room familiar for a long time'

(Pushkin, The Captain's Daughter)

(ii) combinations with adverbs of place (книзу, снаружи, вверху)

E.g. ... биясь уцелевшим белым снизу крылом. --'... striking with the uninjured wing which was white underneath.'

(L. Tolstoy, Anna Karenina)

4.32 Adjectives or Participles with Subordinate Nouns

The two main types in this category are phrases formed with nouns, as subordinate elements, with and without prepositions.

4.321 Non-prepositional Phrases

(i) Phrases with nouns or pronouns in the Dative Case:

E.g. ... очень симпатичная Левину девушка -- '... a girl whom Levin liked so much'

(L. Tolstoy, Anna Karenina)

(ii) Phrases with nouns and pronouns in the Instrumental Case:

E.g ... ему не хочется подчиняться ненавистному и младшему чином немцу Барклаю -- '... he does not want to be subordinate to that Germain Barklay whom he loathes and who is lower in rank to him'
(L. Tolstoy, War and Peace)

(iii) Phrases with nouns in the Genitive Case. Within this subtype only two adjectives remain productive in Modern Russian: полный, достойный. Constructions with other adjectives or participles, or with adjectives in comparative degree are found more often, but they tend to follow the noun being defined (чувство сильнее ненависти -- 'a stronger-than-hatred feeling').

E.g. Этот полный мольбы и нежности голос заставил старика немного опомниться -- 'This voice, full of entreaty and tenderness, has made the old man come to his senses a little bit'
(Mamin-Sibiriak, The Privalov Millions)

4.322 Prepositional Phrases

(i) Phrases with nouns or pronouns in the Genitive Case. Various prepositions can be used in this case:

- от
  E.g. Анна смотрела на нее мокрыми от слез глазами -- 'Anna was looking at her with eyes wet with tears'
  (L. Tolstoy, Anna Karenina)
- для
  E.g. Позорное для женщины слово он проглотил и, в темноте, сел на теплый диван -- 'He swallowed the word which was shameful for a woman, and sat on the warm couch in the darkness'
  (Gorky, The Life of Klim Samgin)

- до

E.g. ... читались ... стихи ... про какого-то до головной боли непонятного кузнечика ... -- '... the poem ... about some grasshopper, who was incomprehesible to the point of causing a headache, was read...'

(A. Tolstoy. The Sisters)

- с

E.g. ... на открытом и видном с обеих сторон протяжении, произошло главное действие сражения -- '... the main battle took place on the stretch of land open and and observable to both sides...'

(L. Tolstoy, War and Peace)

- после

E.g. ... довольная после разговора с дочерью княгиня пришла к князю проститься -- '...the Dutchess, being happy and content after the talk with her daughter, came to say good-bye to the Duke'

- из

E.g. выходивший из трубы дым -- 'smoke that was coming out of the chimney'

- без

E.g ...охотники вели друг с дугом понятный без слов разговор -- '...the hunters were having a conversation understandable without words'

(Fedin, An Extraordinary Summer)

- среди

E.g. популярные среди обывателей врачи -- 'doctors popular among the gentry'

(Fedin, An Extraordinary Summer)

- у

E.g. Удивительный у тебя характер! -- 'What a wonderful character you have!'

(Paustovsky, The Distant Years)

- около, возле, из-за

E.g. Белизна лица матери, с мягкими около глаз и на шее тенями.. -- 'The whiteness of the mother's face, with soft shades around eyes and on the neck'

(Goncharov, The Bluff)

- combinations with double prepositions от ... до, с ... до.

E.g. ... немцы сидели ... с сальными от пальцев до локтей руками - '... the Germans sat with hands covered with grease from fingers to elbows'

(Fadeev, The Young Guards)

(ii) Phrases with nouns and pronouns in the Dative Case. Two prepositions are used in this case:

- к

E.g. Любимая им -- хитрая, холодная к нему девчонка -- 'The one he loved, a little girl who was sly and cold to him '

(Gorky, The Life Of Klim Samgin)

- по

E.g. Я читал ей только одно, очень оригинальное по форме стихотворение -- 'I was reading to her only one poem, very original in its form.'

(Gorky, The Life of Klim Samgin)

(iii) Phrases with nouns and pronouns in the Accusative Case. Several prepositions are used in the combinations of this type:

- на

E.g. Тут был на эпиграммы падкий, на все сердитый господин -- 'There was a gentleman prone to epigrams and angry with everything'

(Puskin, Yevgeny Onegin)

- в

E.g. У него был только один парадный, серый в коричневую полоску костюм -- 'He had only one evening suit, grey with brown stripes'

(Fadeev, The Young Guards)

- за

E.g. Григорий и в себе радостно ощутил эту, не свойственную ему за последние годы податливость на смех -- 'Grigory felt in himself also that pliancy to laughter which was not typical of him in recent years'

(Sholokhov, The Quiet Don)

- под

E.g. возведенная под небеса стена монастыря -- 'the convent's wall built literally up to heaven'

- с

E.g. Один из них, высокий -- с колодезный журавль -- богучарский украинец -- 'One of them was a tall, like a well-sweep, Bogucharian Ukranian'

(Sholokhov, The Quiet Don)

(iv) Phrases with nouns and pronouns in the Instrumental Case. A number of prepositions may be used in the phrases of this type:

- с

E.g. В столовой за завтраком сидел Варавка, в синем с золотом китайским халате -- 'Varavka sat at the breakfast in the dining-room in his blue-and-gold Chinese robe'

(Gorky, The Life of Klim Samgin)

- под

E.g. ... величаво и строго высились седые под ветром вершины старых тополей -- '... the tops of old poplars, grey under the wind, stood stately and sternly'

(Sholokhov, The Quiet Don)

- перед

E.g. Ей вспомнилась вся эта последняя перед ее замужеством зима ... -- 'She recalled all that winter, the last before her marriage'

(L. Tolstoy, Anna Karenina)

- за

E.g. В манерах его ... стала появляться и та обыкновенная за бутылкой свобода -- 'That freedom, usual while sitting and drinking, began to reveal itself in his manners'

(Goncharov, The Bluff)

- между

E.g. затеянный между друзьями спор -- 'an argument started in between friends'

- над

E.g. склонившийся над чертежами студент -- 'a student bent over drawings'

(v) Phrases with nouns and pronouns in the Locative Case. Three prepositions are used in the phrases of this type:

- в

E.g. Всю обратную дорогу они разговаривали о невиданной в области дичи -- 'All the way back they were talking about the game not known in their area'

(Sholokhov, The Quiet Don)

- на

E.g. ... глядя на него совершенно белыми на багровом лице глазами '... looking at him with eyes completely white on his purple face'

(Fadeev, The Young Guards)

- при

E.g. спящий при свете ребенок -- 'a child sleeping with the lights on'

4.33 Adjectives or Participles with Subordinate Infinitive

Although combinations with infinitives are widely used in Russian, the number of adjectives and participles which form phrases of this type is very small (готовый, способный, склонный, достойный, бессильный, беспомощный). Semantically, these phrases are similar to the combinations of subordinate nouns with the preposition к (cf. готовый бороться and готовый к борьбе 'ready to fight' and 'ready for fight').

E.g. склонный преувеличивать масштабы неудач тактик -- 'a tactician prone to exaggerate the scale of failures'

4.34 Adjectives and Participles with the Relative Pronouns Как and Словно

Phrases of this type, due to the semantic character of the relative pronouns как and словно always have a comparative meaning. Nouns (with and without prepositions) following the relative pronoun can be defined by other adjectives, demonstratives, and adverbs. In many cases these phrases have become phraseological units.

E.g. красный как у хорошо сваренного рака нос -- 'the nose, red as a well cooked lobster'

4.35 Adjectives and Participles Defined by a Subordinate Sentence

Adjectives and participles may be defined by an adjunct component which can have the form of a sentence (subordinate clause). These components are comparable to a word or a word combination without internal predication (cf. влажная после дождя земля 'the ground wet after rain' and влажная после того, как прошел дождь, земля 'the ground wet after it rained'). There are two subtypes of phrases within this category: 1) the depending component being defined is obligatory (такой важный, что

нельзя пропустить, матч 'the game so important that it is impossible to miss it', 2) the dependant component being defined is optional (достойный того, чтобы его уважали, человек and достойный, чтобы его уважали, человек 'the man worthy of being respected'). All constructions of this type are similar in that the subordinate clause can be only in postposition to the adjective.

Various combinations of relative pronouns can be used as connectors: такой ..., что; настолько ..., что; до того ..., что; в такой степени ..., что; такой ..., как; тем ..., что; тому ..., что; потому ..., что.

E.g. разочарованный тем, что не мог писать, поэт -- 'a poet disappointed because he was not able to write'

Chapter V

Comparative Analysis of English and Russian Prepositive Attributive Phrases

The fact that Russian and English reveal different prevailing tendencies in their structure, i.e. analytical in English and synthetic in Russian, determines the ability of nouns to have, or not to have, certain parts of speech as attributes. English widely uses prepositive adjunction of nouns as attributes, while the structural order of Russian practically excludes formation of attributive phrases with appositive nouns, with the only exception of their use in phrases with proper names (поэт Пушкин, река Волга), which many authors consider a non-grammatical type of word combination (i.e. when words are rather connected by logical, and not grammatical means). Because English generally does not have case marking, and the word order, on the other hand, is of primary importance, while in Russian case agreement is essential, and the word order is basically free, this difference arises. That is why the similarity of prepositive attributes could be explored only in those cases when the compared phrases in English have an adjectival element in their structure which performs the function of the head word. Nevertheless, our research revealed a number of instances when structural similarities can be found.
Following the classification that was taken as the basis for the English and Russian prepositive attributive phrases we can single out the following cases of correspondence between the two languages:

I. Structurally open phrases (cf. 1.2, p. 12 and 4.1, p. 61):

E.g. 'heavy oaken table' -- тяжелый дубовый стол

II. Partially open phrases (cf. 1.3, p. 13 and 4.2, p. 61):

E.g. 'Belorussian State Polytechnical Institute' -- Белорусский государственный политехнический институт

III. Structurally closed, or integral phrases:

1) Adj+Conjunction+Adjective (cf. 2.211, p. 24 and 4.322, p. 65)

E.g. 'blue-and-white frock' -- голубое с белым платье

It is interesting to note that in the above example the Russian variant contains a substantivized adjective.

2) Adjective+Conjuction *than* +Noun (cf. 2.211, p. 24 and 4.321, p. 64)

E.g. 'heavier-than-air machine' -- тяжелее воздуха аппарат

3) Adjective+Conjunction *than* +Pronoun (cf. 2.211, p. 24 and 4.321, p. 64)

E.g. 'bigger-than-others child' -- крупнее всех ребенок

In the last two cases, although grammatically the prepositive position of attributes is quite possible, they usually follow the noun being defined in Russian.

4) Adjective (Participle)+Preposition+(Article)+Noun (cf. 2.212, p. 25 and 4.322, p. 65)

E.g. 'ready-for-breakfast table' -- готовый для завтрака стол

5) Adjective (Participle)+Infinitive (cf. 2.213, p. 26 and 4.33, p. 70)

E.g. 'ready-to-die fighters' -- готовые умереть бойцы

Within this subtype the amount of similar English and Russian attributes is limited since, as it was stated previously, only a small number of Russian adjectives and participles (e.g., склонный, готовый, способный, etc.) form phrases of this type.

6) Noun+Present Participle (cf. 2.22, p. 26 and 4.321, p. 64)

E.g. 'tool-using man' -- использующий орудия (труда) человек

7) Noun+Past Participle (cf. 2.22, p. 26 and 4.322, p. 65)

E.g. 'battle-scarred warship' -- поврежденный в бою корабль

8) Adverb+Past Participle (cf. 2.22, p. 26 and 4.31, p. 62)

E.g. 'far-gone arguments' -- далеко зашедшие разногласия

9) Adjective+Adjective (or Participle+Participle) (cf. 2.22, p. 26 and 4.1, p. 61)

E.g. 'airy-fairy boy' -- витающий (в облаках) увлекающийся мальчик

10) Adjective+Noun (cf. 2.22, p. 26 and 4.321, p. 64)

E.g. 'small-town manners'-- маленького города манеры

11) Past Participle+Noun (cf. 2.22, p. 26 and 4.321, p. 64)

E.g. 'cut-price shop' -- уцененных товаров магазин

The last two examples in Russian reveal the tendency to use attributes of this type in postposition, although the prepositive arrangement will be grammatically correct.

It can be noted that in some cases there is no identical similarity of Russian and English phrases. A Russian attribute may contain a preposition not present in the English prototype (e.g., поврежденный в бою корабль), or vice versa, the English phrase is formed with a prerequisite conjunction absent in Russian (e.g., аппарат тяжелее воздуха and аппарат тяжелее, чем воздух). Sometimes, Russian phrases tend to connect their elements with the help of prepositions and not conjunctions (e.g., белый с

голубым, not белый и голубой). In a number of cases, Russian equivalents may use more words than English phrases (Adjective+ Adjective; Noun+Present Participle). The word order of the constituent elements in the phrases may also differ in English and Russian (Noun+Present Participle; Noun+Past Participle)

The comparative study allows us to observe an interesting phenomenon. There are, in a sense, two reverse tendencies in these two languages: in English it is possible to form various prepositive attributive groups with the head word within them being a noun, while, on the other hand, adjectival or participial clauses as a rule follow the defined noun; in Russian attributes formed by nouns (with or without prepositions) can only follow the head noun, and adjectival or participial clauses can, in almost all cases, be shifted from postposition into preposition. The fact that the transformational analysis reveals that the adjectives derive from the relative clauses (Relative Clause Formation, Relative Clause Reduction, and Modifier Shift) explains why the most natural position for the Russian attributive phrases will be following the head noun.

Chapter VI

Some Aspects of English to Russian Translation of Prepositive Attributive Phrases

The translation of prepositive attributive phrases presents considerable difficulty since in the majority of the cases it is impossible to find direct equivalents of such constructions in Russian. As we noted before, English phrases of the integral type are not typical of Russian.

In order to obtain the right translation of English integral prepositive attributive phrases, it is necessary to know their structural and semantic paculiarities, and have a notion of the means which the Russian language possesses that can help overcome the difficulties that arise. Besides that, in order to choose the right translational variant it is essential to know the concrete circumstances of two-language communication, i.e. the means available in both languages; the situation described in the message being translated, i.e. to have sufficient familiarity with the subject, that is to say, the extralinguistic context.

Needless to say, in each concrete case the choice of the final translational variant will depend on the concrete lexical meaning of an attributive phrase, and on the meaning of the whole context.

Let us review the general approaches for translation of the prepositive attributive phrases.

1. Traslation of structurally open attributes does not present serious obstacles, since they are translated, generally, with the help of a Russian attributive phrase of the same structural type (cf. 1.2, p. 12 and 4.1, p. 61):

E.g. 'a warm shimmering light' -- теплый мерцающий свет

2. Translation of chain-type prepositive attributes may be done without considerable difficulties when the components of the English phrase could

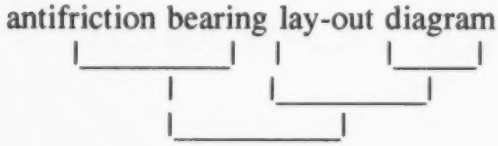
be represented in translation by Russian adjectives and participles in preposition (cf. 1.3, p. 13 and 4.2, p. 61):

E.g. 'Moscow State Technological College' -- Московский государственный технологический техникум

The difficulty arises when chain-type phrases contain semantically inseparable terms, the components of which, consequently, cannot be divided in translation, or when substitution of a noun contained in the English phrases by a Russian adjective is impossible for semantic or grammatical reasons. In these cases, translation may require complete transformation of the phrase structure, and in most of the instances, the use of postpositive attributive combinations and additional descriptive words:

E.g. 'recent government income tax reforms' -- недавние правительственные реформы системы подоходного налогообложения

The attributive phrases of this type most difficult for translation are often found in scientific and technical texts (Krupnov 1976:95-96). Let us consider, for example, the following construction: 'antifriction bearing lay-out diagram'. First, we single out the head word (i.e. the word defined by the attributive phrase): 'diagram' (схема). Now let us examine the attribute to this word. The head word is defined by the immediately adjoining word combination 'lay-out' (расположение). Thus we obtain the group "схема расположения". This group in its turn is defined by the word 'bearing' (подшипник) which has the subordinate attribute 'antifriction' (антифрикционный). However, the semantic relations within the construction have a multilevel character:



That is why the final variant of the translation will be: 'схема расположения подшипников качения'. The given phenomena has become so wide-spread in scientific and technical literature, that there are

even dictionaries the entries of which are formed by word combinations of this type (e.g., Macura (1971). The Russian-English Dictionary of Electrotechnology and Applied Sciences.)

3. When translating a multimember attributive phrase of the closed type (and sometimes of the chain-type), it is recommended that the sequence given below be followed:

i) Translate the head word defined by the attributive phrase, i.e. the noun being defined;

ii) Analyse the semantic relations among the members of the attributive construction, and divide them into semantic groups. While doing this, the analysis should be performed from left to right, i.e. from the first member of the attributive phrase;

iii) Uncover the relations among the separate semantic groups, and then translate the whole phrase begining form the the head word, i.e. noun defined by the attribute, then each semantic group in sequence from right to left. In cases when the English prepositive attribute contains an adjective or participle it is possible sometimes to obtain the translation using a similar structural pattern from Russian, as was established in the course of our comparative study.

E.g. 'ready-for-attack' submarine -- готовая к атаке подлодка

Typically, a closed-type (and complex chain-type) prepositive attributive phrase can be translated in the following ways:

a) By a noun (with or without subordinate adjective or participle) in the Genitive Case without preposition in postnominal position:

E.g. 'information system research' -- исследование информационной системы
'birth rate control' -- регулирование рождаемости

b) By prepositional word combinations (Noun+Preposition+Noun)

E.g. 'Madrid European Security Conference' -- совещание по европейской безопасности в Мадриде

It can be noted that this way of translation is widely used, and particularly often when the attributive phrase contains adverbial relationships.

c) In some cases, one of the nouns in the attributive phrase performing the function of the attribute, can be translated by a Russian participle:

E.g. 'program management analysis team' -- группа, анализирующая програмное управление

d) An adjective or participle can be the first element of an attributive group. In this case, it is essential to establish which member of the phrase it defines, or whether it is subordinate to the head word defined by the attribute:

E.g. 'oil-related planning applications' -- применение связанного с нефтью планирования

'sudden wind change' -- внезапное изменение ветра

e) In cases when there is a proper noun denoting a geographical name at the beginning of the attributive phrase it can be translated into Russian by an adjective, a noun in the Genitive Case without preposition, or by a noun with a preposition (Adverbial Modifier of Place).

E.g. 'Chicago Broadcasting Corporation' -- Чикагская телерадиовешательная корпорация

f) Often, within the prepositive attributive phrase there is an adjective, which in this case is translated by an adjective defining the word following right after it:

E.g. 'SEATO pact military chiefs' -- военные главари пакта СЕАТО

g) Attributive groups may contain not only nouns, but other parts of speech such as numerals, participles, etc. Quite often English prepositive attributes even have internal predication, and in this case we find finite forms of the verb as members of the attributive combinations. Usually such attributes are translated by means of a participial clause or a subordinate sentence:

E.g. 'one-size-fit-all boots' -- обувь с размером, подходящим для всех

The Hinkley-Didn't-Do-It-Or-At-Least-Not-Alone Theory -- версия, что Хинкли непричастен, или же замешан не он один

h) In cases when a prepositive attribute consists of a sentence (interrogative, exclamatory, or narrative), and there is a connotation of comparison, or else it is a quotation of somebody's direct speech or possible thoughts, it could be translated using the same structural pattern as in the English sentence with the introductory words, or word combinations like: как, словно (говоря), как бы (говоря), and other synonymous expressions:

E.g. 'She gave Mrs. Silsburn a you-know-how-men-are look' --
Она взглянула на миссис Силзберн, как бы говоря: "Вы ведь знаете мужчин ... "

i) In some cases the Russian translation can have a form of a short quotation always following the head noun, usually when the context deals with signs, tables, posters, advertisements, etc. In some cases such literal quotations can be preceded by the word типа or its synonyms:

E.g. 'fasten-the-belts sign' -- табло "пристегнуть ремни"
'land-to-land missile' -- ракета класса "земля-земля"

j) In the majority of cases it is impossible to give a literal translation of an English attributive phrase, because the corresponding nouns or adjectives are absent in Russian, or when the elements cannot be combined together. Then, the transposition of the members in the Russian attributive phrase may become necessary. So, for example, it would be incorrect to translate the phrase 'administrative efficiency' as "административная умелость",

because this word combination sounds awkward. But it is quite possible to say "умелое администрирование", and then replacing the word "администрирование", which has a certain negative connotation, by "руководство" we can obtain the final variant of translation: "умелое руководство" (Zraževskaja, Beljaeva 1966:63).

k) In certain cases the combination of two notions, expressed in English by the members of a prepositive attributive phrase, contradicts the norms of combinability of words in Russian. Then, it is possible to re-direct the attribute inside the phrase towards another noun in this phrase. In the construction 'Wall Street's ambitious world economic empire' it is not acceptable to translate 'ambitious empire' as "честолюбивая империя". Hence, one of the possible variants could be: мировая экономическая империя, создаваемая честолюбивыми империалистами с Уолл-Стрит (Levickaja, Fiterman 1963:45).

l) Sometimes, a verbal+adverb construction could be used in translation of prepositive attributive phrases:

E.g. 'He is a quite early riser' -- Он встает достаточно рано

m) The semantic incompleteness of prepositive attributive phrases, when one or more logic components are omitted from the word combination, as well as the lack of phrases analagous in structure in Russian, sometimes makes it inevitable to transform the entire phrase. Let us review the following example (Seidova 1974:62-63):

'Whilst condemning the onerous term accepted by Heath as a sell-out, an attempt to put the burden of entry on the working class, the socialists also exposed the fundamentally big business nature of the EEC and showed how this also meant that the EEC was a factor perpetuating the cold-war divisions in Europe, backing up the cold-war NATO alliance.'
In this sentence the phrases "cold-war divisions" and "cold-war NATO alliance" have analogous structure in English, but do not have a structural correspondence in Russian. In translation of both these phrases, the method of lexical unfolding is necessary, i.e. adding the words that make up (amend) the meaning of the utterance:

Осуждая кабальные условия, принятые Хитом, как предательство национальных интересов и попытку переложить бремя вступления в ЕЭС на рабочий класс, социалисты разоблачали также природу "Общего рынка" как орудия "большого бизнеса", как фактора, способствующего продлению раскола, вызванного "холодной войной" в Европе, и поддержке военного союза НАТО -- другого порождения "холодной войны"

In this case, one of the phrases could be translated as *раскол, вызванный "холодной войной"*, with the introduced component *"вызванный"* which is absent, but implied in the English text. In the other part, we can also introduce the components that are lacking, and to avoid repetition of the word *"вызванный"* which is stylistically not justified, we use a combination *"другое порождение"* , plus define the word 'NATO' by the component *"военный"* to disclose the essence of this alliance more clearly. The final variant of this part of the sentnce will be: *союз НАТО -- другое порождение "холодной войны".*

Unfolding the attributive phrase with additional components is often necessary in translation of technical and scientific terms:

E.g. 'high alumina cement' -- цемент с большим содержанием глинозема

n) In some cases, in contrast to the previous example, a relatively extended prepositive attributive phrase from the English source may be translated into Russian with the help of just one word (Latyšov 1968:34):

E.g. 'Doctors in London are crowded in Harley Street, solicitors in Lincoln's Inn Fields, second-hand-book shops in Charing Cross' -- У лондонских врачей офисы в основном находятся на Харли-стрит, стряпчих -- на Линкольнз Инн Филдс, букинистов -- на Черинг Кросс.

(Thackeray, The Vanity Fair)

o) Attributive phrases which are phraseological units cease to remain just ordinary attributes; they may be regarded as epithets (Levickaja, Fiterman 1963:47). For example, 'the brink-of-war action' -- "действие,

продиктованное политикой балансированя на грани войны". Two additional words: "продиктованное" and "политикой" are used in this translation; while the epithet which has acquired the features of a cliche, is translated into Russian with the corresponding Russian cliche: "балансирование на грани войны".

It is not always possible to retain the metaphorical character of the epithets of this type. Such constructions have a very compact format due to the close syntactic relationships, and that is why they quite often require a descriptive translation:

E.g. 'the 15 fingers on the trigger policy' -- политика боевой готовности 15 стран-участниц НАТО

Attributive phrases which are phraseological units are used extensively in belles-lettres, and almost always present considerable difficulties in translation since it becomes necessary to periphrase them in most of the cases:

E.g. 'I never cared for your set-the-Thames-afire gentlemen, who are so much more clever than their neighbours' -- Мне никогда не нравились все эти ваши господа, которые хотят удивить мир и считают себя умнее своих ближних

(Thackeray, The Virginians)

p) Two-component phrases consisting of a noun and a present participle, which are extensively used in technical literature, help to express a complex notion with the use of a compact syntactic structure the first element of which denotes an object, and the second the action performed to this object (Brodskaja 1974:53-59). This enables one to give a short definition of mechanical and other devices: 'paper-cutting machine', 'gear-shaping tool', etc. Analysis of numerous terms proves that the corresponding structural construction in Russian, i.e. Noun+Participle I, is used only in a limited number of cases.

The most common equivalents of such English terms are Russian compound words, the first element of which is the base of a noun, and the second is an deverbal adjective:

E.g. 'nut-tapping machine' -- гайконарезной станок

Sometimes the second component is represented by a dependent base of an adjective: 'type-casting machine' -- словолитная машина. Within this group, insignificant lexical deviations in translation of the second component are sometimes observed: 'horse-breeding farm' -- коневодческий завод.

The second variant of translation is the use of word combination "preposition для+deverbal noun+noun": 'fish-cleaning machine' -- машина для зачистки рыбы. Russian attributive phrases in this case may often use more words than the English variant, since the English participle is often derived from the verb that corresponds two Russian words: 'food-slicing machine' -- машина для нарезки пищевых продуктов ломтиками. Within this category we also find Russian equivalents having an adjective in the frontal position, which corresponds to the English participle: 'head-joining machine' -- фуговальный станок для доньев.

In the third variant, the English three-member group (i.e. the head word plus the two-component attribute) is translated by a single compound word in Russian, whereas the first component of this word denotes the object with which (or to which) the action is performed, and the second component, excluding the suffix (-чик, -тель), represents the base of a verb which denotes the action: 'steam-drying machine' -- паросушитель.

In the fourth variant, the Russian term includes only an adjective, which corresponds to the English participle. The Russian adjective in this case often has a terminological meaning which allows to omit the first element of the English term: ' coal-cutting machine' -- врубовая машина.

In the fifth variant, the omission of the second element of the English attribute is observed. This usually happens when the second English component is usually represented by the word "making", or other participles denoting a process performed to the object, expressed by the first component: 'nail-making machine' -- гвоздильный станок, 'fur-bearing animals' -- пушные звери.

Besides the five main ways of translation of such attributes there exist other types (the use of hyphenated compound adjectives: 'fine-boring machine' -- отделочно-расточный станок; the use preposition "по": 'metal-sawing machine' -- пила по металлу, etc.), but quantitively, they comprise a small amount of examples.

It must be noted that numerous occasional groups having the same structure, but lacking terminological connotation, which are often found in modern English texts of various styles, are usually translated into Russian by participial clauses or subordinate sentences:

E.g. 'poetry-quoting fanatic' -- цитирующий стихи фанатик
'blood-curdling reality' -- действительность, от которой стынет кровь

In conclusion, it is necessary to note that it is impossible to give all possible variants of translation, and find a certain form or pattern which could be implemented in all cases. The richness of the Russian language, its specific means for conveying of various shades of meaning, are so diverse, that the their choice will depend upon the concrete situation, concrete meaning, and contextual and extralinguistic content which is found in the source text.

The semantic aspects of the deep structure analysis are also potentially valuable for translation, although they were not a purpose of the present research at this stage. Another approach, taking into account the aspect of deep structure representation will presumably help with problems in translating, and this could be a possible next step in the research.

Bibliography

Axmanova, O.S. (1948). "O semantičeskoj klassifikacii predlogov." Doklady i soobščenija filologičeskogo fakulteta MGU, 1948, 5, pp. 43-48.

Axmanova, O.S. (1966). Slovar' lingvističeskix terminov. Moskva: Sovetskaja enciklopedija.

Babby, L.H. (1975). A Transformational Grammar of Russian Adjectives. The Hague-Paris: Mouton & Co N.V.

Ball, C.M. (1945). Compounding in the English Language. N.Y.: Longman Ltd.

Bauer, J., R. Mrazek, and S. Žaža (1966). Priruční Mluvnice Ruštiny Pro Čechy, Vol. II, Praha: Skladba.

Boguslavskij, A. (1964). "O kratkix i polnyx formax prilagatel'nogo v skazuemom." Russkij jazyk v škole, 1964, 1, pp.14-19.

Brodskaja, M.I. (1974). "Složnye slova tipa `tooth-cutting` v anglijskoj texničeskoj literature i ix russkie strukturnye sootvetstvija.".Tetradi perevodčika, Vol. 11, pp. 53-59. Moskva: Meždunarodnye otnošenija.

Brown, G. (1884). Grammar of English Grammars. N.Y: William Wood & Company.

Buzarov, V.V. (1989). "Ob odnom sposobe vyraženija attributivnyx otnošenij v sovremennom anglijskom jazyke." Inostrannye jazyki v škole, 1989, 56, 3, pp.73-74.

Chomsky, N. (1957). Syntactic Structures. The Hague: Mouton & Co N.V.

Corbett, G.G. (1993). "The Head of Russian Numeral Expressions", Heads in Grammatical Theory. Ed. by G.G. Corbett et al. Cambridge: University Press, pp. 11-35.

Curme, G.O. (1963). English Grammar. N.Y.: Barnes & Noble, Inc.

Dudnikov, A.V. (1958). Punktuacija složnogo predloženija. Moskva: Prosveščenie.

Fortunatov, F.F. (1957). "O prepodavanii grammatiki russkogo jazyka v škole." Izbrannye trudy, Vol. 2, Moskva: AN SSSR.

Harris, Z.S. (1952). "Discourse Analysis", Language, 28, pp.18-23.

Horrocks, G. (1987). Generative Grammar. London and New-York: Longman Group UK Limited.

Jespersen, O. (1969). Analytic Syntax. N.Y.: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.

Jespersen, O. (1958). The Philosophy of Grammar. London: George Alien & Unwin Ltd.

Krupnov, V.N. (1976). V tvorčeskoj laboratorii perevodčika. Moskva: Meždunarodnye otnošenija.

Latyšov, N.V. (1968). Atributivnye slovosočetanija s nominativnymi komponentami v sovremennom anglijskom jazyke. Moskva: Izdatel'stvo literatury na inostrannyx jazykax.

Lees, R.B. (1963). Grammar of English Nominalization. The Hague: Mouton & Co N.V.

Levickaja, T.R. and A.M. Fiterman (1963). Teorija i praktika perevoda s anglijskogo jazyka na russkij. Moskva: Izdatel'stvo literatury na inostrannyx jazykax.

Levickaja, T.R. and A.M. Fiterman (1975). Problemy perevoda. Moskva: Izdatel'stvo literatury na inostrannyx jazykax.

Levinbruk, R.P. (1954), "Atributivnye sočetanija s prepositivno primykajuščej dvuxčlennoj gruppoj opredelenija." Učenye zapiski MGU, 17, pp. 34-45.

Ljung, M. (1970). English Denominal Adjectives, Gothenburg, Sweeden: University of Goteborg (Gothenburg Studies in English, Vol. 21).

Meys, W.J. (1975). Compound Adjectives in English and the Ideal Speaker-listener. Amsterdam-Oxford: North-Holland Publishing Company.

Miller, J. (1989). "Dependency Relations and Constituent Structure in Spoken Language: Numerals, Demonstratives and Adjectives in Russian." Department of Linguistics, University of Edinburgh.

Pollard, C. and I.Sag (1987), Information-based Syntax. Leland Stanford Junior University: Centre for the Study of Language and Information.

Pollard, C. and I. Sag (1994), Head-driven Phrase Structure Grammar. Chicago & London: The University of Chicago Press.

Prokopovič, N.N. (1962). Sočetanja narečij s imenami prilagatel'nymi v sovremennom russkom jazyke. Moskva: Učpedgiz.

Prokopovič, N.N. (1966). Slovosočetanie v sovremennom russkom jazyke. Moskva: Prosveščenie.

Prokopovič, N.N. (1974). Voprosy sintaksisa. Moskva: Vyssaja Škola.

Quirk, R. (1962). The Use of English. London: Longmans, Green and Co Ltd.

Radford, A. (1993). "Head-hunting: on the trail of the nominal Janus." Heads in Grammatical Theory, Ed. by G.G. Corbett et al. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 73-113.

Seidova, T.G. (1974). "Vybor ekvivalentov semantičeski nepolnyx atributivnyx slovosočetanij pri perevode s anglijskogo jazyka na russkij." Tetradi perevodčika, Vol. 11, pp. 59-66. Moskva: Meždunarodnye otnošenija.

Smirnickij, A.I. (1952). "K voprosu o slove." Voprosy teorii i istorii jazyka. Moskva: Učpedgiz.

Smirnickij, A.I. (1957). Sintaksis anglijskogo jazyka. Moskva: Učpedgiz.

Smith, C.S. (1961). "A Class of Complex Modifiers in English." Language, 37, pp. 11-54.

Spears, M.J. (1990). Phrase Structure in Natural Language. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Vaillant, A. (1942). "L'Article en vieux slave." Revue des études slaves, 20, pp. 5-12.

Vitonite-Genene, I.P. (1959). "Sočetanija slov v funkcii prepozitivnogo opredelenija i vopros ix leksikalizacii." Učenye zapiski LGU, 253, pp. 23-36.

Vitonite-Genene, I.P. (1964). "K voprosu o stilističeskom ispol'zovanii atributivnyx sočetanij v sovremennom anglijskom jazyke." Učenye zapiski vyssšix učebnyx zavedenij Litovskoj SSR, Vol. VI, pp. 76-88.Vilnus: Jazykoznanie.

Zaliznjak, A.A. (1967), "O pokazateljax množestvennogo čisla v russkom sklonenii." To Honor Roman Jakobson, Vol. 3. The Hague: Mouton & Co N.V., pp. 2328-2333.

Zraževskaja, G.A. and L.M. Beljaeva (1966). Trudnosti perevoda s anglijskogo jazyka na russkij. Vol. 1. Moskva: Vyssšaja Škola.